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A Glance at this Issue

Personnel Counselors Help New Employees

What is a personnel counselor? What does he or she do?

While employee counseling is not exactly new, a few companies having had the service as a part of industrial relations work for some time, it has received much attention recently in connection with the great influx of inexperienced workers into industry, especially women. Anything that can help along their adjustment to their new environment and assist them with personal problems so that they can devote full attention to the work at hand, it is believed, will contribute toward increased production. Here is where the counselor fits in.

The Personnel Manager of Wright Aeronautical Corporation describes (page 298) how personnel counseling has been developed in that organization over a period of the last two years.

Attendance Bonuses—Yes and No

The Boston Regional War Labor Board says you can. The Cleveland board says you can't. The question is whether, as a measure to combat absenteeism, you can hold a lottery with perfect attendance as an eligibility requirement or offer other incentives to encourage workers to be on the job, on time, every day.

Now that the National War Labor Board has issued a decision on attendance bonuses, there may be more uniformity in future decisions on the subject made by regional boards. (Page 309.)

The Fire Menace in Industry

Anytime, uncontrolled fire is a menace in industrial plants. Today, when every machine is in operation, when thousands of new employees are working with unfamiliar tools, and enemies are seeking to hinder war production, the danger is even greater. The national fire loss has been increasing steadily during the last five years. It is imperative that industrial management become fire conscious and impart that consciousness to every employee in the organization.

Protection against fire means two things—fire prevention and fire fighting. Some of the outstanding work that has been done by companies in both aspects is described in an article beginning on page 299. British experience, which is included, points to the most effective safeguards against dreaded incendiary bombs.

What the Women Shall Wear

Don't tell the woman worker what to wear unless it is necessary from a standpoint of safety and efficiency. And then, if you can, give her some choice of fabric, color and design. Women can be sold on the idea of wearing uniforms if the approach is right (many companies have had great success with their educational campaigns), but will resent regulations for which they can see no good reason.

Thorough understanding of women's psychology is evinced in the discerning comments of executives on the subject of uniforms for women employees. (Page 306.)

Rationing and Strikes

A new trend noticeable in the type of strikes being called during the month of June was that many strikes were occasioned by rationing restrictions. Milk drivers, for instance, resented taking out extra loads of milk when the number of deliveries was reduced to conserve gasoline. In transportation, operators objected to cuts made in the total mileage of the lines to save necessary materials which resulted in shorter hours or in reduced labor force and longer hours. All contributed to the picture of industrial unrest during the month in which the off-again, on-again coal strike kept the public guessing. (Page 327.)

Personnel Counseling

By WALTER BISHOP

Personnel Manager, Wright Aeronautical Corporation

BACK in May, 1941, when steam was going up in the boiler of war production and when the United States was still at peace, the fact became apparent at the Wright Aeronautical Corporation that foremen and leadmen, who were burdened with immensely enlarged manufacturing programs involving intricate processes no longer had the time to devote to the adjustment problems of new employees.

Thousands of new workers were starting to work who were in most cases unfamiliar with conditions within a factory. The workers needed a period of readjustment to their new environment. This orientation was especially needed by the women who were being employed by Wright Aeronautical in increasingly large numbers to replace men in service.

To relieve supervisors and foremen of these adjustment duties and to speed the acclimatization of the new workers, the Personnel Department adopted the personnel counselor plan. This plan was to provide a staff whose major function was to make the relationship between the employee and the company as harmonious and efficient as possible and to make every employee feel at home.

FREE-WHEELING AMBASSADORS

The counselors were given few specific duties at the outset and little actual authority. They were considered as free-wheeling ambassadors whose time could profitably be spent in serving individual workers and making their lot easier. They were to be walking information bureaus on such subjects as transportation, rationing, housing and the like. It was definitely understood at the start—and this still obtains—that they were not to handle grievances for which other channels had been provided. Furthermore, they were to have no concern with production.

The program was started cautiously. Counselors were hired in a trickle instead of a stream. At first, there was only one man, who, for a month, was on his own. He went everywhere, talking with foremen and supervisors and men on the production job, selling the idea that counselors could be enormously useful. In some quarters he met opposition from men who felt he was infringing on their duties, but he was able to convince them that the counselor plan was sound. After this opposition had been won over five or six men were added to form a staff nucleus.

The Personnel Department was careful to employ persons whose interest in human relations was paramount and who also had an intimate knowledge of shop practice. As witness to their judgment, all the original counselors are still either in the Personnel Department or in employee relations work.

Because of the large number of women workers employed by Wright Aeronautical, women were added to the staff of counselors and advisers who now number sixty-eight men and women. Counselors—both men and women—are on duty twenty-four hours a day to cover all three shifts in the shops and offices.

MAJOR TASKS

One of the major tasks of the counselors is to inform employees of the various recreational activities sponsored by the Personnel Department. Another is to give advice in personal problems if advice is asked. Still another is to aid in the induction of new employees.

When counseling was started, it was customary for new employees to report immediately to their assigned foremen for work as soon as they had been given a badge and number. It soon became apparent, however, that there was need for an induction process which would permit new employees to learn how Wright Aeronautical and the engines the company builds fit into the war, the importance of working safely, and the availability of the many services of the Personnel Department.

As the induction process evolved, it became increasingly a sort of continuous education, with the counselors acting as instructors. An inspirational talk is given to show that "Wright Powers the Tonnage of the Air." An opportunity is provided to sign war bond pledges and a 20-minute film is projected to illustrate how Cyclone engines are made.

THE INTERVIEW PLAN

After a reasonable time had passed to assure that counseling benefited the workers, the Personnel Department began to expand the staff to the point where it would be possible to offer a greater service to each new employee. This has been done through interviews in which counselors are ready to help any new worker to a better adjustment to his work. Three interviews are now customary. The first comes a few days after employment, the second is scheduled within six weeks, and the third is held in about five months.

As the program got under way, some supervisors wanted the counselors to report to them. But the Personnel Department insisted on maintaining control of this staff, arguing that some employees would talk more freely to a counselor who was not directly responsible to their supervisors. And so it has proved.

One foreman, for instance, called in a counselor to see why an apparently intelligent employee was not progressing in his work. The foreman said that the man was not stupid, but that the number of spoiled parts was out of proportion to the employee's apparent ability. It took nearly an hour of conversation before the counselor finally won the confidence of the worker, who revealed that when he had first come to work someone had warned him to keep strictly to himself, with the advice, "Don't ask any questions." The employee had followed the suggestion so diligently that he had failed to ask questions in instances when he had not fully understood the foreman's instructions.

Several days later the counselor saw the foreman. "I don't know what you did," the latter observed, "but it worked wonders." The counselor never told. Keeping confidences is of paramount importance.

Women Advisers and Counselors

It was evident fairly early that full production for war would require the hiring of hundreds—and then thousands—of women. Most women workers who were hired were accepting employment for the first time and only a few of them had ever previously done factory work. Their problems of adjustment would therefore be even greater than those of the men who were being employed. It was evident, too, that women would not talk freely to men about their private problems.

The first women were added to the counseling staff in February, 1942, and were employed as advisers assigned to designated locations in the shop or office area. Later, women were added to the staff as full-fledged counselors, with duties similar to those of men counselors. Advisers are distinct from counselors in that they normally work in fixed locations—often in or near locker rooms, while the counselors travel through the shop areas like the men.

Counselors have more responsibilities than the advisers and usually have had more experience with personnel techniques. It is the counselors, for example, who conduct the scheduled interviews. They are also frequently called upon by the Training Division to give talks to trainees on subjects such as personal hygiene, safety and working conditions to help prepare the potential graduates for their jobs.

Of the women on the counseling staff, advisers are by far more numerous than counselors. Some advisers have been upgraded to counselors.

The adviser handles the early adjustments on the job because she is the first person whom the newly employed woman meets after induction. The adviser tells the new worker where to punch her time card, where to find the cafeteria, the hospital, her work bench or her machine. She introduces the woman to her foreman and leadman, to other girls in the department, helps find luncheon companions for her, and the like.

The Head Counselor for Men has worked in the program almost from the start. The Head Counselor for Women holds a master of arts degree from the University of Chicago and has had fourteen years of personnel experience.

Plant Fire Protection

A PROGRAM of fire protection in an industrial plant includes two fundamental activities: fire prevention and fire fighting. If the first is successful, the second will be unnecessary. It seems that thorough training in fire fighting usually results in a condition leading to a reduction in the number of fires. This condition is often described as fire consciousness, an important element in fire prevention.

If it is true that training in fire fighting reduces the number of fires that occur, then it would seem desirable that there should be an increasing number of employees trained in this technique in all industrial plants, particularly war plants.

Milwaukee industries have proved during the past year or so that this is a practical idea. More than a thousand employees from major plants in the Milwaukee area have completed the plant fire fighter's training course under the direction of the Milwaukee County Association of Fire Chiefs. As a result, the city fire apparatus has had fewer runs to factory fires.

Even in normal times uncontrolled fire is a national menace. Today, when every machine is working at full capacity, when many new employees are working with unfamiliar tools, and enemies are seeking to hinder our war production, it is essential that destructive fire be brought under stricter control than ever before.

According to the National Board of Fire Underwriters,[1] fire losses in the United States have been increasing during the last five years as is shown by the following figures:

1938	$250,000,000
1939	$275,000,000
1940	$286,000,000
1941	$304,000,000
1942	$314,000,000

Research on certain phases of plant protection was begun by THE CONFERENCE BOARD in 1940.[2] Extension of these studies into the field of fire protection began in 1942, and has included visits to industrial plants to observe fire protection measures and fire-fighting equipment and the study of manuals and publications on fire protection which have been received from companies throughout the country. This article is based on selected material from this study.

THE FIRE DANGER

Riots, strikes, spite, revenge are all possible causes of fire—as well as such things as carelessness, negligence, fire ignorance, and lack of fire protection.

In the last war, a favorite weapon was a small incendiary device composed of two sections separated by a thin metal partition, each section containing a chemical. A gradual eating away of the partition brought the chemicals together in a predetermined length of time, producing a fire. These bombs could be dropped near combustibles by disloyal employees without too much danger of detection.

In this war, major attention has been given to the possible destruction of war plants by incendiary bombs dropped from enemy planes. A report prepared by fire protection engineers in Great Britain shows that during the Battle of Britain when German planes sought to deal a knockout blow, high explosive bombs started only one fire to every four started by incendiaries.

Incendiary Bombs

Although aerial incendiary bombs are really just our old enemy "fire" in a new disguise, they have received more attention recently than any other single fire hazard.

The bomb itself is not too difficult to handle if it is observed when it lands. In many cases it will be consumed by the time fire fighters reach it and what is left is the same type of fire that might be started by a discarded match, a burning cigarette, or from a defect in the electrical system. Nevertheless, there are a number of different types of incendiary bombs and it is well to know their characteristics and how to deal with them.

Thermit Bomb

The thermit bomb consists mainly of a thin metal container filled with a mixture of granulated aluminum and iron oxide. Water is useless on the thermit bomb itself, but, of course, it can be used to keep surrounding combustibles from being ignited. The bomb will usually burn itself out in less than one minute.

Magnesium Bomb

Upon impact, the first-fire mixture in the magnesium bomb ignites a thermit charge and the heat of the burning thermit ignites the magnesium-alloy outer casing. The thermit burns for about 45 seconds, the casing for about 15 or 20 minutes, if left alone.

If a heavy stream of water is directed on the burning bomb there is a fairly violent disintegration. However, the bomb will be consumed in about 15 seconds.

A magnesium-type incendiary bomb is likely to burn through a 7/8-inch wood floor if left alone but is not likely to burn through a solid board of 2-inch thickness.

The United States Bureau of Mines announced in March, 1942, that experiments proved that hard pitch of specified grade and size was a good material for combatting magnesium bombs. It is particularly recommended by the bureau for factory use.

Phosphorus Bomb

Upon impact, the phosphorus bomb showers small pellets of phosphorus over a considerable area. If the pellets come in contact with face or hands of fire fighters, serious burns may result.

Dousing the pellets with a solution of copper sulphate deposits a coating of copper on the phosphorus and stops combustion.

Sodium Bomb

An important characteristic of the sodium-type incendiary bomb, from the standpoint of fire-fighting technique, is its affinity for water. Sodium ignites upon contact with water. Extinguishing of sodium incendiary bombs is therefore dependent upon some smothering agent.

Oil Bomb

Upon impact, the oil bomb sprays oil in all directions and should, as a rule, be fought like any other oil fire.

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[1] For losses from 1900 to 1937, see *The Industry Record*, April, 1942, "Operations of Fire Insurance Companies."

[2] *Studies in Personnel Policy*, No. 24, "Employment of Aliens and Plant Protection," 1940; *Management Research Memorandum*, No. 9, "Protection of Plant and Personnel," 1942.

Oil bombs have made a poor showing as compared with magnesium. Heat is directed mainly upward and outward, while in the magnesium bomb there is also downward penetration. In addition, the factor of weight is against the oil bomb. A gasoline bomb, for example, weighing the same as the most commonly used magnesium bomb, would contain only one pint of gasoline.

Fire Prevention

There is more to fire prevention than just putting up "No Smoking" signs. It begins with the design of a building, when decisions are made regarding the use of fire-resistant building materials, the building of fire walls and fire doors, and the planning of plant layout so that there will not be excessive concentration of valuable production materials in any one area.

The specialized business of making plants safe from fire is now a well-defined profession, usually designated as fire-protection engineering. Following are a few of the organizations that are active in the promotion of fire prevention and fire protection:

National Fire Protection Association
60 Batterymarch Street
Boston, Massachusetts

National Board of Fire Underwriters
85 John Street
New York City

Underwriters Laboratories, Inc.
207 East Ohio Street
Chicago, Illinois

Factory Mutual Inspection Department
and Laboratories
184 High Street
Boston, Massachusetts

National Bureau of Standards
Washington, D. C.

National Safety Council
20 North Wacker Drive
Chicago, Illinois

National Fire Waste Council
Washington, D. C.

Fire Protection and Insurance Section of
The Association of American Railroads
Washington, D. C.

The Bell Aircraft Corporation plant in Buffalo is typical of war production plants in which fire prevention is rated first in importance in the fire-protection program. The fire chief, a veteran of more than twenty years' successful service in public fire fighting, has eleven uniformed firemen and more than a thousand volunteer firemen under his direction.

Every uniformed fireman at Bell plants has a full day's work. Besides drilling volunteers, he makes it his major concern to inspect every nook and corner daily. There are several hundred items listed in the inspecting fireman's daily report that must be checked, including the condition of all fire apparatus, and the manner in which smoking rules are observed.

Under "Heating," he must note whether there is proper clearance between woodwork or other combustible material and smokestacks, furnaces, boilers, and steampipes. Under the heading "Cleanliness and Order," a careful check is made on the disposal of combustible material and the accumulation of rubbish. Infractions of "Keep the Plant Clean" rules are reported immediately.

Fire Fighting

The training of auxiliary firemen for service in industrial plants closely parallels the training of rookies for professional fire service. However, there is one important difference in that the rookie fireman in public service has more opportunities to put into practice the things he learns in his training course than does the member of a private fire brigade. Some of the things that the industrial fire fighter must know intimately are:

Fire department rules and regulations
Fire department tools and their uses
Exact placement of tools on fire apparatus
Use and care of fire hose
Use and placement of ladders
Use of rope and tying of knots
Identification of bombs
Rescue and first-aid work
Fire extinguishers
Automatic sprinklers
How to work as a team in the fire brigade

The last three of these items—fire extinguishers, automatic sprinklers and industrial fire brigades—are discussed in this article.

First-aid Fire Extinguishers

In fire-fighting language, a fire extinguisher is a portable first-aid fire appliance designed to extinguish a fire before it has spread to a large area. One type of extinguisher utilizes the cooling effect of water while other types make use of the smothering effect of chemicals. Oil fires, for example, must be smothered. Fires in electrical equipment require an extinguishing agent that is a nonconductor of electricity. This eliminates the use of water on electrical fires.

Plain-water Extinguisher

One type of plain-water extinguisher involves hand pumping to build up pressure to expel the water onto the fire. Another type, faster in action, is equipped with a carbon-dioxide cartridge to provide pressure. By inverting the tank and bumping it against the floor the cartridge is broken and the carbon-dioxide gas that is released forces out the water. A new cartridge is necessary after service.

Soda-acid Extinguisher

Soda-acid extinguishers are for class "A" fires, the type which occurs in ordinary combustible materials such as wood, paper and rubbish. This extinguisher contains a solution of soda in water, and a small bottle of sulphuric acid placed in such a manner that when the extinguisher is inverted the acid mixes with the soda water and reacts chemically. The pressure which develops from this reaction expels the contents in a stream that will reach 20 to 30 feet.

A 2½-gallon unit can be expected to extinguish a vigorously burning partition, covering an area of 100 square feet.

Both the sulphuric acid and the soda solution should be renewed annually, as well as immediately after use. Proper charging procedure includes washing all parts thoroughly with water and draining water through the hose. The new soda solution should be mixed thoroughly outside the extinguisher in exact accordance with instructions furnished by the manufacturer. The "Handbook of Fire Protection" states that "the water should be lukewarm, never hot."

Routine recharging provides at least one occasion on which selected employees may be given a chance to try their hand at operating an extinguisher.

It is dangerous to try to stop the discharge of any soda-acid extinguisher, once it is in operation. The pressure that is built up is dangerous if shut off. If an extinguisher of this type should fail to discharge after it is turned upside down it would be advisable to sever the discharge hose close to the cylinder. If this could not be done quickly or if it still failed to discharge, the next thing to do would be to get away from it as fast as possible.

Foam Extinguisher

The foam extinguisher is similar to the soda-acid type in both outward appearance and method of operation and is made in the same sizes, 1½ gallons and 2½ gallons. A feature that is different is an inner cylinder which contains aluminum sulphate. As in the case of the soda-acid extinguisher, the outer cylinder contains a solution of bicarbonate of soda in water. In addition, however, the solution contains a foam-stabilizing agent to toughen the bubbles that emerge when the extinguisher is in action.

Inverting the extinguisher brings the two main chemicals together and produces carbon-dioxide gas in the form of bubbles. A 2½ gallon extinguisher will produce about 20 gallons of foam and will throw it 30 feet or more. In the case of a burning liquid in an open tank, the proper technique of application is to direct the stream of foam against the far side of the tank so that it will drop lightly on the surface of the burning liquid. It will then spread across the surface and smother the fire. If this approach is impossible, the next best method of action is to stand far enough from the fire so that the stream of foam will fall lightly on the flaming liquid as a result of the distance traveled before contact. A 2½-gallon extinguisher is usually sufficient to smother 12 square feet of burning gasoline surface. Forceful application of this extinguishing agent defeats its purpose by breaking up the formation of foam on the surface of the liquid, interfering with the process of smothering the blaze.

The foam extinguisher is quite effective on oil fires as well as on most other inflammable liquids. Two important exceptions are alcohol and acetone. These liquids dissolve the foam, rendering it ineffective.

A detail in operation that seems worth while remembering is to shake the extinguisher several times while inverting it for action to assure that the chemicals are well mixed.

Carbon-dioxide Extinguisher

Since carbon dioxide is an inert gas that will not support combustion, it can be used in concentrated form to smother a fire by cutting off the entire supply of oxygen around a blaze, which it extinguishes swiftly.

The carbon-dioxide extinguisher, a relatively late development in the field of fire appliances, consists mainly of a steel cylinder containing carbon dioxide under high pressure, and a horn or funnel through which its discharge may be directed at the base of the flame. The effective range is limited to five to eight feet.

The carbon-dioxide extinguisher is put into operation simply by turning the valve-release mechanism. The gas, having been compressed to 850 pounds a square inch, emerges under its own pressure, expanding to 450 times its stored volume. The displacement of oxygen, together with the deposit of carbonic "snow" of very low temperature, produces both a smothering and cooling effect.

One of the advantages of this extinguisher is its terrific penetrating power. By proper aiming, the gas will penetrate behind obstructions that would deflect a liquid stream.

Another advantage is the absence of residue from the extinguishing material. This is in contrast with the mess that must be cleaned up after many fires on which water has been used as the extinguishing agent, a factor that should be carefully considered when selecting a fire extinguisher for use in industrial plants.

Carbon-dioxide extinguishers are ideal for fires in delicate electrical equipment, such as control circuits, control boards, telephone equipment and recording instruments. They can be obtained in a variety of sizes, the smaller ones containing anywhere from two to ten pounds of carbon dioxide.

The carbon-dioxide extinguisher should be weighed annually, as a check for leakage or accidental discharge. It must be recharged immediately after use, even though it has been only partly discharged.

DuGas Extinguisher

DuGas is a dry powder that is highly effective in combatting fires involving oils, solvents, greases, lacquers, paints, inflammable gases and live electrical equipment. The powder is blown by pressure over the burning area. Upon contact with the fire a chemical reaction takes place in the powder, releasing a large volume of inert gas which blankets the fire and smothers it.

Advantages claimed for the use of DuGas powder include the following:

1. Does not corrode the inside of the extinguisher tank.
2. Does not cake or lose its efficiency if stored for long periods.
3. Is not affected by cold temperatures.
4. Is nontoxic.
5. Is safe for inexperienced fire fighters.

Identifying Extinguishers

Constant training is necessary in order to be sure that volunteer fire fighters will use the correct type of extinguisher for a particular kind of fire. In some plants, precautions are taken to avoid a mistake of this kind by painting extinguishers with color combinations that can be recognized at a considerable distance. The Carnegie-Illinois Steel Corporation uses a color code which includes the following:

Soda-acid extinguishers—solid red
Foam extinguishers—red with central yellow band
Carbon-dioxide extinguishers—red with central white band

Automatic Sprinklers

Most persons have noted the existence of automatic sprinkler outlets on ceilings in public buildings, but perhaps few have seen them in action on a fire.

Automatic sprinkler protection has been used in the United States for more than fifty years. Long experience has proved that it is the best single safeguard against disastrous fire.

The discharge outlets are known as sprinkler heads. Each head is a nozzle ready to discharge water on any fire that arises. One type of head employs a soldered joint to keep it closed under normal temperature conditions. Another type has as its operating element a transparent elongated bulb, made from quartzoid, nearly filled with a colored liquid. An abnormal rise in temperature expands the liquid and bursts the bulb, opening the sprinkler in a forceful manner. One of the advantages of the quartzoid unit is that it defies corrosion.

In the case of the solder-type head the ascending heat melts the solder and brings about the discharge of water. This type is more common than the quartzoid type.

Standard heads have discharge orifices about ½ inch in diameter. No fire department could expect to place hose lines quickly enough to do an equivalent job by manual fire fighting. Records show that in more than 70% of all fires in sprinklered premises it took no more than five heads to extinguish the blaze.

British Experience

Experience with sprinklered industrial plants in Great Britain during this war has proved that the automatic sprinkler, if properly maintained and supplied with water, is the best single safeguard against fires caused by incendiary bombs and that it is the most effective all-round method of providing fire protection. A British publication[1] describes the part that automatic sprinklers played in the defense of factories during the Battle of Britain. The description is based on approximately 250 incidents in sprinklered premises in widely separated areas, including the recognized "blitz" centers. It was found in this survey that automatic sprinklers extinguished or effectively controlled over 77% of the fires started by incendiary bombs. "In addition," the report says, "restricted service such as sounding the alarm or checking the spread of fire was rendered in approximately 5% of the incendiary-bomb incidents. Thus, a total of 82% sprinkler successes."

Following are excerpts from this report describing specific incidents in which sprinkler equipment saved factories from destruction:

> This incident occurred on the premises of a famous firm of pipe manufacturers in the spring of 1941, when a number of incendiary bombs penetrated the roof of their building.
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> Eight separate fires were raging simultaneously as the result of the incendiaries coming through the roof at different points. The sprinkler installation undoubtedly saved the building and put out fires which were

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[1] *The Sprinkler Bulletin*, December 31, 1941, published by Mather & Platt, Ltd., Manchester, England.

fierce enough to entirely consume racks holding goods in our warehouses.

The advisability of carrying out such replacements as are necessary to keep an installation operative, without loss of time, is illustrated by an incident which occurred towards the end of 1940, on premises occupied by a firm of tanners. On the occasion of the first visit four quartzoid bulb sprinklers opened and held the fire in check until the arrival of the fire watchers, whose first intimation of the incident was the ringing of the alarm bell.

Later the same night another incendiary penetrated the roof of the drying room on the second floor of the building protected by a "Grinnell" installation. This set fire to the roof, floor and sides.

Six soldered sprinklers opened and held the fire in check until fire watchers arrived to finish the job with the hose.

Here again the first alarm was the ringing of the sprinkler bell.

Clients' engineer stated that had it not been for sprinklers the probability is that the whole premises would have been destroyed or severely damaged. The drying rooms are old, rambling buildings and are in open communication with the rest of the place.

This is an account of an incident where a fire was started by an incendiary bomb which had escaped the notice of the fire watchers. Several incendiaries had fallen into the works and most of them had been promptly smothered by fire watchers, five being extinguished before sprinklers came into operation.

When the fire watchers thought all fires were extinguished, they were surprised by the ringing of the alarm bell on the sprinkler installation.

After a short search it was found that fire had been started by an incendiary in the canteen.

The owner's report states: "We had no knowledge of this fire until the alarm bell advised us. When the seat of the fire was found the incendiary had been extinguished."

A report sent in by a firm of general drapers illustrates the advantage of good team work when sprinklers, staff and extinguishers combine to deal with incendiary bomb fires.

During a recent raid an incendiary bomb dropped through the lantern light and on its fall set fire to a blind over the well, causing three sprinkler heads to come promptly into action.

Water from these sprinklers dealt successfully with this part of the fire.

In the meantime, the bomb had come to rest on a landing of the stairs. Although it was promptly dealt with by members of the staff, who covered it with two sandbags, the explosive portion of the bomb fell in some cushions adjacent to the stairs. This fire was put out by the staff with soda-acid extinguishers.

Two saves are reported on successive nights on a wholesale warehouse, and the incident is interesting because the town's main service, on both occasions, would have been unable to deal with the fires as the pressure was down to approximately 20 lbs. per square inch on account of numerous fires with which brigades were dealing in the neighborhood.

Fortunately an elevated tank supplied water to the sprinkler installation.

On the first occasion an incendiary bomb hit the roof of the premises, which is a flat matchboard roof covered with lead. The lead was melted by the heat of the bomb and the concealed space underneath was set on fire.

One sprinkler in the concealed space operated and was successful in extinguishing the fire.

Sprinkler Valve Supervision

The record of serious fires that have occurred during a period when automatic sprinklers were shut off has demonstrated a weakness that has to be guarded against continually. Fire protection engineers of the inspection department of Associated Factory Mutual Fire Insurance Companies have developed a "Keep Sprinkler Valves Open" placard which may be hung in locations where employees may read the precautions carefully. Following are the points emphasized on these cards.

Obtain permission and signed "Sprinkler Valve Closed" tag from manager.

Notify the Insurance Company by card provided, stating which valve is to be closed and what precautions against fire are to be taken. If possible, notification should reach Insurance Company 24 hours before the valve is closed. In emergency notify by telegram. (Notification of closing of valves 2½ inch or smaller need not be made in advance.)

Lay out work and have material ready before shutting off sprinklers. Provide plugs and caps for closing open pipes immediately in case of fire.

Do not shut off sprinklers while plant is operating.

Shut off as small an area as possible.

Keep a man stationed at the closed valve ready to open it at once if fire breaks out.

Maintain an extra watchman to patrol rooms where water is shut off. Have fire pails and extinguishers ready and hose lines laid for immediate action.

Push work vigorously without interruption.

If work is not completed at nightfall, make temporary connections and turn on the water. Do not leave sprinklers shut off over night.

When work is completed, open the valve wide and make full-flow drain test. Reseal the valve. Return the tag to the manager.

Notify the Insurance Company by card provided that valve has been opened and protection restored.

If primary water supply is out of service or impaired, maintain pressure by fire pump or other water supply until conditions are normal.

Shut-off valves represent the most common cause of unsatisfactory sprinkler performance. Even with frequent inspection there is always a chance that between inspections a valve may remain closed either by mistake or by the malicious action of a saboteur.

Outside central station electrical supervision of sprinkler systems offers the only fool-proof method of protecting against sprinkler failure. For example, the American District Telegraph Company serves more than 350 cities and towns in the United States. Under this system electrical devices detect the closing and opening of any valve and transmit an alarm to the A.D.T. central station. A closed valve is immediately investigated and contact with the company is maintained until the valve is opened. During a typical year, A.D.T. central stations receive more than 30,000 alarms caused by the closing of valves.

Industrial Fire Brigades

During the vital early stage of a fire so much depends upon getting the blaze promptly under control that it seems to be quite a gamble to place too much dependence on near-by municipal fire departments. Delayed alarms, traffic conditions, or another fire elsewhere may cause a delay which spells tragedy.

Every plant should have a private fire brigade. The Associated Factory Mutual Fire Insurance Companies recommend that drills be held once a month throughout the year, the drills to consist of answering an imaginary fire, laying hose lines, turning on water and actually handling hose streams.

Size of the Brigade

Lieutenant Colonel Prentiss[1] states that a factory employing 250 persons requires at least five watchers and one fire party of six fire fighters. In case of a plant having 10,000 employees his recommendation is that there should be at least 27 fire watchers and 3 fire parties of 12 fire fighters each.

At the Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company, a guide for determining the proper size of the fire organization in its various plants is set up by specifying the organization required in a plant employing from 2,000 to 3,000 employees, covering 750,000 to 1,000,000 square feet and having an average fire risk. Following are the Westinghouse recommendations[2] for a plant of this size:

The plant fire brigade should consist of an assistant fire chief and a minimum of 18 trained firemen, each assigned specific duties as hoseman, hydrant man, etc. The brigade should be composed of ten men from the main shift, four from the second shift, and four from the third shift. Several of the men should be maintenance department employees with a thorough knowledge of the electrical system, the sprinkler system, and general plant lay-out. Members should live close to the plant and be on call 24 hours a day.

Each fire brigade will attend at least one practice session in fire fighting each week for instruction in the use of fire-fighting equipment. Emphasis will be placed on the proper use of personal protective equipment such as fire helmets, gas masks, asbestos suits, etc. Training will be conducted during regular working hours, and scheduled drills will include all members of the three shifts working in one group.

A minimum of 30 auxiliary firemen should supplement the main fire brigade. These men (preferably one man for each department for each shift) should, in general, respond to fire alarms within their respective divisions only. At least once each month they will be trained to assist the regular fire department, and scheduled drills including auxiliary and regular firemen will be held through the year.

Equipment

The adequacy of fire brigade equipment should be viewed in the light of wartime conditions. The possibility of air raids should play a part in the calculations. The minimum equipment recommended for a fire watcher or an auxiliary fire-fighting squad at Bethlehem Steel Company is as follows:

1 pair of leather or asbestos gauntlets for each squad member
1 pair of dark safety-glass goggles for each squad member
4 water buckets
1 sand bucket with 3-inch or 4-inch layer of sand in bottom for use in removal of incendiary bombs
1 portable water pump
1 long-handled, flat, square-nosed shovel
2 bags, each containing about 10 pounds of sand
2 electric lanterns
2 one-pound sealed packages of copper sulphate to be dissolved in water (1 pound of copper sulphate per bucket) for use on phosphorus bombs
100 feet of ½-inch manila rope
3 steel sheets for protective shields

Compensation for Fire Drills

On February 2, 1942, the Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division, United States Department of Labor, answered the question of compensation status of employees during fire drills in the form of a letter to a company that raised this question. His answer included the statement that "when fire drills are conducted during regular working hours at a time fixed by the employer, the time spent in the drill should be considered hours worked for purposes of the Fair Labor Standards Act."

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[1] "Civil Air Defense," McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 334 pp., 1941.

[2] "Emergency Plant Protection," by T. Lyle Hazlett, Medical Director, Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company, East Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, *Executives Service Bulletin,* March, 1942.

Incentives such as extra pay, freedom from lay-off or social activities are favored by many executives to encourage service in the fire brigade. Fire Brigade instructions at the American Pulley Company include the statement that "all employees paid by the hour or by the piece will be compensated for all time spent on fire drills and fire fighting at a day rate of $1.00 per hour."

The "Servel" Brigade[1]

The volunteer fire brigade at Servel, Inc., Evansville, Indiana, has been in existence for many years. It functions as part of the maintenance division under the maintenance superintendent.

The brigade consists of 46 men in addition to the fire chief and assistant fire chief. The brigade is organized into four groups headed by a captain, first lieutenant, second lieutenant and third lieutenant, respectively.

The brigade meets every Thursday night. Meetings ordinarily include fire drills, discussions of fire hazards and fire-fighting problems, and inspection tours of sprinkler valves, post indicators and roof ladders. The Fire Chief and Assistant Fire Chief make daily inspection tours, checking electrical wiring, usage of inflammable liquids, location and condition of fire extinguishers and other fire-fighting equipment.

Brigade members are now taking an intensive training course prepared by Purdue University, the State Fire Marshal's Department and the Indiana Fire School. The course consists of ten units. The Servelians were the first industrial group in Evansville and the second in Indiana to complete the first unit.

The Servel brigade maintains close cooperation with the Evansville Fire Department and state fire agencies. City and state fire officials frequently attend brigade meetings and drills.

The fire brigade is recruited on a volunteer basis. The requirements are few and are based on commonsense. Members must live within six blocks of the plant so that they can reach the plant quickly in an emergency without using their cars. It is understood that they will conform to brigade discipline, are interested in fire prevention and fire fighting, and are willing to give of their time and energy to help protect the lives and jobs of themselves and their fellow workers.

It's not all work and no play for fire brigade members. They frequently have social gatherings before and after meetings, but the big social event is the annual fire brigade family dinner party. Each year during fire prevention week the firemen and their families are invited by the company to this affair, which always includes a fine dinner and an interesting program of entertainment.

E. S. Horning
Management Research Division

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[1] From *Servel Inklings*, Supplement, June 5, 1942.

Comments on Management Problems

A POLL OF THE VIEWS OF EXECUTIVES OF REPRESENTATIVE COMPANIES ON MATTERS OF TIMELY INTEREST

POINT 1. The Smith-Connally bill has been enacted by the Senate and the House. If this bill becomes law,[1] do you feel that its provisions will have the effect of controlling strikes in war plants for the duration? Do you consider it a constructive step toward more satisfactory labor relations?

About a third of the replies indicate a definite belief that the bill will be effective in controlling strikes in war plants for the duration. Approximately 25% reflect a definitely negative opinion. The largest number, however, are of the opinion that, while the bill is inadequate in some respects, it is nevertheless a step in the direction of much needed legislation. Several of these comments express the belief that one advantage of the bill is that it furnishes labor with a valuable measuring stick of public opinion. Reactions were quite evenly divided as to whether the bill is a constructive step toward more satisfactory labor relations. Representative replies include the following:

> The Smith-Connally bill, if it becomes law, should have the effect of curbing some of the more irresponsible labor leaders, but it is problematical whether the sum total of labor disturbances will be reduced. The thirty-day provision, with voting machinery, lends an air of legitimacy to wartime strikes. With a genuine squeeze in the plane of living, there may be a wave of such situations.

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[1] This measure was passed over the President's veto on June 25, 1943.

The bill constitutes a step in the direction of "equalized" legislation. In fact, this could be the most far-reaching labor law since the passage of the Wagner Act.

Perhaps the best thing that can be said of the Smith-Connally bill is that it is timely, *i.e.*, it deals with a present crisis in the coal dispute. I believe this bill was passed because public opinion in this matter made it clear to Congress that the government must be upheld, certainly in time of war, and that while labor's needs are important and its demands should be thoroughly considered, these are not paramount. In the sense that this bill or a similar one will aid in maintaining production during the war, I believe it is a constructive step. What its influence would be on labor relations in the future, I am unwilling to prophesy.

While we believe that the Smith-Connally bill has many defects and is far from an adequate solution of the present labor problem, it seems to us that by and large it is a step in the right direction and may have the effect of at least controlling strikes in war plants.

My own thought on the matter is that just as a business combination in restraint of trade can be dissolved by a government edict (as patent rights in time of war become subject to public needs on the theory that any grant of power given by national authorities can be withdrawn when national security requires it), there should be a provision in the law whereby such extra legal privileges as the closed shop and the check-off could be withdrawn by the government.

Surely, when an extra legal right is granted, the authority granting it should have the privilege of taking it away if it is abused in wartime.

Personally, I am of the belief that the threat of such action would be the greatest deterrent to labor strife which we could have, since, if carried out, abolition of the closed shop and the check-off would automatically undercut the income of the officers and business agents of the locals, as well as that of the national officers.

The Smith-Connally bill is extremely unlikely to have the effect of controlling strikes in war plants. On the other hand, enactment of the bill as a law is equally unlikely to have the effect of causing widespread labor disturbances.

The bill seems to me to be pretty much of a "political" instrument—an attack on what is conceived to be an adversary—rather than an attempt to solve a problem after reasoned analysis of its component aspects.

Generally speaking, I do not believe the enactment of this bill will necessarily control strikes in war plants for the duration, and neither do I consider it a constructive step for the long pull toward satisfactory labor relations. On the other hand, I do not condemn the bill; I believe it should be enacted and stringently applied for the duration of the war. The bill is lacking in many respects. For a long pull proposition, I believe a bill could and should be legislated providing some control over dictatorial labor leaders and unethical practices by these leaders and their cohorts, all of which would be of mutual benefit and advantage to unions and their members, industry, and the public.

Since you asked the question, the Smith-Connally bill has become law over the President's veto. It seems too early yet to know just what the effect of this law will be. Many fear that it will hasten the control of government over business because only in government-operated plants are the penalties of the law invoked.

POINT 2. Use of uniforms has become quite general in the case of women employees. Should the wearing of uniforms be required whether or not essential for safety or efficiency? If some women wear them should all be required to do so, even those filling jobs where no such requirement previously existed? If they are required, should the company or employee furnish them? Who should pay for laundry?

Approximately four out of five of the reporting executives suggest that women employees should be required to wear uniforms only on those jobs on which uniforms are essential for safety or efficiency. Two executives stress the advisability of selling the idea of uniforms to women workers instead of making their use a condition of employment. Both of these executives report a reasonable degree of success in their companies in getting women to wear uniforms without the use of compulsion. Several replies contained the suggestion that if the nature of the work required dress regulations the uniforms should not necessarily be identical in fabric, style and color.

Only a quarter of the executives believe that employees should furnish their own uniforms. Another quarter believe that the company should furnish uniforms at cost to the employee, and the remaining half suggest that the company bear the entire cost.

In regard to the cost of laundering uniforms, more than half of the executives believe that the employee should pay for this service. One reply suggests that the question of the cost of both uniforms and laundry service should be decided in accordance with past practice and local custom. The following comments are representative of the replies:

The principal grounds for requiring women employees to wear uniforms are safety and efficiency, as you have indicated. It is doubtful whether uniforms should be required in the absence of the factor of safety or efficiency. Under some circumstances an attractive uniform may, however, add to the morale, but even that is a questionable conclusion to apply to all circumstances. The wearing of uniforms should not necessarily be applied to all women (except in consideration of safety and efficiency). The company should not furnish uniforms, nor any manufacturing industry pay for the laundry. There is, as you know, some state legislation requiring that the employer supply the uniform and pay for the laundering of it when the wearing of the uniform is required and when the wage pay is so low that these expenses would bring the employee's net earnings below the minimum rates of pay required by law.

We have had a very limited experience with women in our foundry plant proper, but we have made it a condition of employment that a woman purchase and wear a uniform, safety shoes, and a cap. We have felt that since women were an innovation in this plant in shop operations, uniforms would make the addition to our force of women employees more businesslike, would make for more efficient work, and would serve ideally from a safety angle. Even our timekeepers who work in the shop and work part-time in the office are required to wear uniforms in the shop, and the practice has been that they wear them all of the time they are on duty, although it is purely voluntary after they have taken up the time in the shop.

The company does not pay for either the uniform, the cap, or the safety shoes, but does furnish necessary safety equipment such as spectacles, goggles and respirators. The individual pays for the laundering of her own uniform.

We do not believe that the wearing of uniforms by female employees should be required where it is not essential for safety or efficiency. If uniforms are required, it is not necessary that they all be exactly the same. Such regimentation would not rest well with women in that it would void their individuality which, we are sure, would be most distasteful to them. If a uniform meets the basic requirements for safety, we believe that minor variations are not objectionable. As to the matter of who furnishes the uniforms and pays for the laundry, this depends on local custom and practice. It is our feeling that the uniform should be made available to the employees at a reasonable cost, and laundry facilities should be arranged by the employer but paid for by the employee.

Women employees at our plant are required to wear uniforms on all jobs where safety and efficiency make uniforms advisable. They are told about uniform regulations when hired and are advised that the company provides an acceptable uniform, at cost, for those who wish to buy it.

Those who elect to provide their own work clothing must wear what conforms to published regulations.

Laundry is the employee's responsibility.

On this problem we do not experience as much difficulty in getting women to wear approved clothing as in getting them to wear it properly. The best head covering available is no good from the safety standpoint if worn back on the head, allowing a curl of hair to be free to catch in a drill press.

If uniforms are not essential from the standpoint of safety or efficiency, I don't think it is a very good idea to make it compulsory to wear them, especially among a group of women who may have worked in the plant for years with no uniform requirements. We have one plant with this problem, and what we are trying to do is to sell this group of women on the idea of wearing uniforms by offering them uniforms at a very low price, although they have to furnish laundry themselves.

After about three months, we have about 30% of this group in uniform and hope before too long to have the whole department wanting to wear uniforms. We are merely trying to educate them to the fact that uniforms are neater, more comfortable and a great saving to them. I personally believe that if clothes rationing comes to the United States it will automatically solve this problem. Where uniforms are definitely required from a safety standpoint, I think the company should either furnish them or at least pay some part of the cost. I believe the same should hold true of laundry.

The use of uniforms for women employees in plants is becoming very general. Inasmuch as it is expedient that women in plants wear slacks rather than skirts, it seems reasonable that uniforms be required for safety and efficiency as well as expediency. It is rather difficult to generalize about requiring all women to wear uniforms in a plant where women have worked previously and no such requirement existed. This is a problem which, it would seem, must be settled by the company where it arises and only after weighing very carefully whether such a rule could be enforced.

A few plants known to me where women employees use uniforms provide them at a nominal cost. Usually this nominal cost is the result of quantity buying by the company, enabling it to pass on the saving to the individual employee.

As to who should pay the cost of laundry, there seems to be no reason why the company should pay for this if it has not been in the habit of providing clean uniforms for its male employees.

POINT 3. Potential sources of labor are being reexamined in search of additional workers. One such possible source is retired workers. Is it the practice in your company or community to recall pensioned employees? If so, have these employees returned to work willingly and have they proved satisfactory?

For one reason or another, about half of the companies covered do not have pensioned employees. The majority of the remaining companies have recalled their pensioned employees with satisfactory results. The executive of one company, which has not called back these employees, reports that several pensioned employees have volunteered to return to work and have been accepted.

One executive states that his company is not recalling pensioned employees because the work is too heavy for old people. Executives of two other companies point out that while their retired employees are not being recalled, the practice is growing in their areas.

It is most significant that direct and indirect experience with pensioned employees who have returned to work indicates that they have returned willingly and that their work is satisfactory. Individual comments follow:

> On the average, workers retired on pension begin to lose their skills pretty rapidly, particularly as in most instances they are older people, 65 years or more of age. It is only in exceptional instances that we bring back pensioners who have been retired and this always in such a way that it is to the advantage of the employee so that they in no sense can be said to work unwillingly. On the other hand, we have found it quite advisable to delay the pensioning of employees who reach retirement age, especially where they can perform their duties satisfactorily and are in reasonably good health. In this way, since the worker has never lost his skill, we find a real source of labor which reduces our demands upon the outside labor market.

> Realizing the possibilities of securing help by calling back retired employees, we talked to our various superintendents and asked them to recommend men who had been retired from their departments. We then sent each of the men recommended an invitation to return to work. Practically all of the physically fit men wished to come back at their old trades for the duration of the war. They have proved exceedingly satisfactory, for they are able to help in the training of the newer employees. They have also helped bolster the morale of our workers.

> We, and a number of other companies, are recalling retired workers, and we are deferring all pensions, provided our plant physicians certify the employees as physically qualified to carry on their work satisfactorily. Those whose pensions we have deferred are doing just as well as they have been in the last several years.

> We have not been recalling retired workers, nor have we been employing people who have been retired by other employers. On the other hand, there is a tendency toward the employment of retired persons both by the original employer and by new employers.

WLB Decisions on Attendance Bonuses

THE POLICY of paying an attendance bonus to employees who have perfect attendance records received a severe jolt in the area covered by the Cleveland Regional War Labor Board when the proposals of nine Ohio companies were turned down about June 8.

The following are representative of the nine proposals:

> (1) Proposal to give a $25 war bond to any of the company's nine mechanics who are not absent or late during a 30-day period.
>
> (2) Proposal to offer, at each half-month pay period, one or more war bonds totaling $100, to be distributed by lot among those factory workers who have not been absent or tardy and have worked full time during the pay period. Any employee winning one prize would not again be eligible until the end of the second following pay period, and then only if he had been on the job full time for the preceding two pay periods. Affects 110 employees.

An excerpt from one of the principles set forth in the decision of the Cleveland Board follows:

> The absentee bonus is paying more money into the stream of inflation to get a person to do a thing which he has already agreed to do and for which he is already being paid.

On June 2, on the other hand, the Philadelphia Regional Board approved a contest plan at the Scott Paper Company, Chester, Pennsylvania, in which the period May 16 to July 3 was established as an attendance contest period. Perfect attendance during this period would result in a bonus equal to three days' extra pay. Each day of absence would eliminate one day's bonus. The Philadelphia board holds that this contest plan conforms to the "hold the line" policy, which permits incentive plans that increase production.

Shortly before the Scott Paper Company plan was approved, the Boston regional board approved a plan of Cornell-Dubilier Electric Corporation, Providence, Rhode Island, to raffle off two $25 war bonds weekly. As in the other cases, this plan has been devised to discourage absenteeism, as the lottery is limited to employees who have not been absent or tardy during the week.

Early in July the National War Labor Board disapproved an agreement between Jay Garment Company, Portland, Indiana, and the CIO's Amalgamated Clothing Workers for an attendance bonus of 2½¢ an hour for each month of perfect attendance. In disapproving this proposed bonus the WLB's decision states that it is not an adjustment permissible under Executive Order No. 9328.

Absenteeism during April

ABSENTEEISM in April accounted for 42,020,000 man days lost by industrial employees because of sickness, nonindustrial accidents and absences for personal reasons, according to THE CONFERENCE BOARD's survey for that month. The average loss of .8 day per man and 1.4 days per woman were computed from figures of absenteeism in forty-one plants located in seventeen states and the District of Columbia and employing 93,873 men and 31,733 women. The plants represented were approximately 71% engaged in the production of war materials of one kind or another. About 84% of the men and 64% of the women were factory workers.

HOURS OF WORK AND ABSENTEEISM

The average number of hours worked a week by men and women in factory and in office are shown in the accompanying table. In the report as a whole, men worked 44.1 hours a week on an average, or 1.9 hours more than women.

	Avg. Work Week in Factory	Avg. Work Week in Office
Men	45.8	38.1
Women	44.0	39.2
Combined	45.0	38.6

The relationship of absenteeism to hours of work for male employees is indicated in Table 1. The increase in the number of days lost an employee as weekly work hours increase indicates the effect of longer hours upon illness and absences for other reasons.

TABLE 1: FREQUENCY AND DURATION OF ABSENCE AMONG 93,873 MALE EMPLOYEES IN APRIL, 1943 IN RELATION TO HOURS WORKED A WEEK

Weekly Work Hours	Average Number of Absences for 1,000 Employees			Average Days Lost an Absence			Average Number of Days Lost an Employee
	Short-term	Long-term	All Absences	Short-term	Long-term	All Absences	
Over 60.	315	134	449	2.5	8.8	3.7	1.7
55–59 . .	136	24	160	1.6	7.3	2.5	0.4
50–54 . .	365	24	389	1.5	8.1	2.2	1.1
45–49 . .	221	75	296	1.7	6.6	2.9	0.9
40–44 . .	75	43	118	1.7	10.4	4.9	0.6
35–39 . .	300	. . .	300	1.1	. . .	1.1	0.3
Total.	192	64	256	1.6	8.4	3.3	0.8

The rates of absence for the weekly work groups over 54 and under 40 hours are misleading, as these groups were made up of very small samples.

Data on hours and absenteeism for women are given in Table 2. Hours of work apparently have a much greater effect upon absenteeism among women than among men.

TABLE 2: FREQUENCY AND DURATION OF ABSENCE AMONG 31,733 FEMALE EMPLOYEES IN APRIL, 1943 IN RELATION TO HOURS WORKED A WEEK

Weekly Work Hours	Average Number of Absences for 1,000 Employees			Average Days Lost an Absence			Average Number of Days Lost an Employee
	Short-term	Long-term	All Absences	Short-term	Long-term	All Absences	
55–59 . .	333	78	411	1.5	7.0	2.5	1.0
50–54 . .	280	126	406	1.8	8.8	4.0	1.6
45–49 . .	539	120	659	1.4	8.1	2.7	1.7
40–44 . .	336	139	475	1.5	6.5	2.9	1.4
35–39 . .	220	76	296	1.4	9.2	3.4	1.0
Total.	369	123	492	1.5	7.3	2.9	1.4

The range of weekly work schedules for women, however, is not great enough over 49 hours to provide an adequate comparison with the similar rates for men.

TABLE 3: FREQUENCY AND DURATION OF ABSENCE AMONG 75,767 MALE AND 25,108 FEMALE EMPLOYEES IN APRIL, 1943, ACCORDING TO REASONS FOR ABSENCE

Classification	Short-term Absences			Long-term Absences			All Absences		
	Ill	Accident	Other	Ill	Accident	Other	Ill	Accident	Other
Absences per 1,000 men. .	82	4	113	41	2	22	123	6	236
1,000 women	186	6	219	64	3	71	250	9	290
Days lost an absence									
Men.	1.7	1.6	1.4	9.1	11.7	6.0	4.4	4.7	2.2
Women. . .	1.5	2.0	1.4	8.5	9.3	5.6	3.3	4.3	2.4

REASONS FOR ABSENCE

The reports of thirty-one plants employing 100,875 persons are analyzed in Table 3 to show the relative importance of illness, nonindustrial accidents and absences for personal reasons.

TABLE 4: CHANGE IN EMPLOYMENT, MARCH TO APRIL, 1943

Companies on War Production	Men	Women	Total
100%	–2.1%	7.9%	0.0%
75%–99%	0.0	4.7	1.2
50%–74%	–0.1	1.8	0.6
Under 50%	–2.8	–4.8	–3 4
Combined	–1.7	2.4	–0.6

TRENDS IN EMPLOYMENT

Thirty-four companies decreased the number of employees on their payrolls 0.6% from March to April. It is interesting to note in Table 4 that the loss of men in the companies working 100% on the production of war orders was compensated for by the increased number of women employed in that group, making no change in the total.

ISABEL RODGERS
Management Research Division

Wage and Salary Stabilization

GOING RATES AND RATE RANGES

GENERAL Order No. 31 sets forth, among other things, the basic requirements of the National War Labor Board with respect to ranges in wage or salary rates pertaining to jobs at the level of WLB jurisdiction. Section II-B-1 (a) relates to existing plants while subsection (b) applies to new establishments or new departments in existing establishments. A reproduction of this section of the order follows:

> *a. Existing establishments*
>
> (1) The minimum rate for each job classification shall be fixed at (a) the minimum rate prevailing in the plant or establishment for each job classification or (b) at a level not exceeding the minimum of the bracket of sound and tested rates which prevails for similar job classifications in the same labor market, whichever is higher; provided, however, that in rare and unusual cases where the critical needs of war production require, a higher minimum rate may be set.
>
> (2) The spread between the minimum and maximum rates for each job classification shall wherever possible be in accordance with the standards prevailing in the industry and area.
>
> *b. New establishments or new departments in existing establishments*
>
> (1) Except in rare and unusual cases where the critical needs of war production require or except as may be necessary, in the case of new departments, to maintain internal balance of the rate structure, the minimum rate for each job classification shall be fixed at a level not exceeding the minimum rate of the bracket of sound and tested rates which prevails for similar job classifications in the same labor market.
>
> (2) The spread between the minimum and maximum rates for each job classification shall wherever possible be in accordance with the standards prevailing in the industry and area.

It should be noted that subsection (a) provides two possible starting points for a given rate range. It may be either "the minimum rate prevailing in the plant . . . or . . . the minimum of the bracket of sound and tested rates . . . in the same labor market, whichever is higher."

The proper procedure to be followed in determining brackets of sound and tested rates is covered in "Instructions to Regional War Labor Boards for Operations under Executive Order No. 9328 and under Supplementary Directive of May 12," issued to all regional boards by the National War Labor Board on June 1. Following is a reproduction of two subsections of these instructions, explaining the meaning of wage and salary brackets:

> A rate bracket is a range, from minimum to maximum, of stable, tested rates for a given occupation in a given labor market.
>
> There should be a bracket for each major job classification studied. Each bracket should be for jobs which are comparable as to the type of work performed. Similarity of names is no guarantee of comparability of jobs. Similarly named jobs may in fact differ by type of industry, by method of wage payment, and by fact of unionization. It may be found necessary to determine separate brackets, with respect to the same-named job, for different general types of establishments. However, small variations in similar jobs are normal; such small variations in job content do not preclude the inclusion of such jobs in the same bracket.

Offsetting the implication that the establishment of proper rate ranges is a highly technical process is the fact that another section of the same instructions includes the following statements:

> There is no automatic, statistical way of determining the wage rate brackets. The use of sound judgment and discretion by the tri-partite boards is necessary. The following suggestions, however, may be found useful:
>
> a. Decisions on particular cases before a regional board may be expedited by the setting of tentative brackets for the key occupations involved.
>
> b. In setting tentative brackets, it would be well to bear in mind that wage rate brackets are quite different from the single weighted average rates which were used in deciding cases under Executive Order 9250. However, a regional board may, in its discretion, make use of the weighted average for a given job classification by constructing a rule-of-thumb bracket as follows: take as the bracket minimum a point, say, 10% below the

weighted average rate and take as the bracket maximum a point, say, 10% above the weighted average rate.

Further reinforcement of the idea that in many cases sound judgment and discretion will play a major part in setting up rate ranges is provided in the unanimous decision of the National War Labor Board in the case of its decision of June 1 relating to the Toledo, Peoria and Western Railroad. The opinion of the Board, written by Wayne L. Morse, includes the following significant statement:

> It is obvious that the Board has reached its decision in the instant cases upon available wage data which permit of only general comparisons. To have made more exact comparisons would have involved detailed studies of wage rates and minute job analyses relative to telegraphers and clerical employees of the Toledo, Peoria and Western Railroad and its neighboring railroads. This would have necessitated thorough studies of the duties and responsibilities of the employees. It is only after the completion of such studies that exact and precise comparison of wage rates could be formulated. The preparation of such detailed studies would have been a waste of time and money in this case because the Board is satisfied that the wage increases as proposed by the Federal Manager are within the bracket of sound and tested going rates for the occupations and for the labor market area.
>
> It is the opinion of this writer that it will be impossible for the government to stabilize wages under Executive Order 9328 and the Supplementary Directive of May 12, 1943, if complex and highly theoretical statistical techniques are to be applied in formulating wage stabilization policies. Neither the War Labor Board nor other agencies of government should lose sight of the fact that this country still has a war to win and the maintaining of maximum production of war materials is vital to a successful prosecution of the war. Time is too precious in the midst of this war to permit long delays in settling wage disputes pending the preparation of detailed statistical wage analyses, especially when such analyses are not likely to produce any better results than the application of sound common sense by fair-minded judicial men.

There has been some confusion relating to the date May 31, 1943, which occurs in General Order No. 31. The significance of this date is explained in WLB instructions, dated June 18, under the title "Statement by the National War Labor Board with Respect to General Order No. 31." Section (2) of these instructions is as follows:

> Job classification rates or rate ranges must have been in existence properly on May 31, 1943. They must be those which were in existence prior to October 3, 1942, or those resulting from permitted adjustments subsequent to that date, or rates set for new jobs under either the former or the revised General Order No. 6. Improper adjustments of rates for job classifications or for individual employees are not a basis for determining a job classification rate or rate range.

E. S. Horning
Management Research Division.

Personnel Practices

Industry Organizes for Care of Children

War industries in the Buffalo region have organized an association to work out what is believed to be the first overall plan of industry to care for children under fourteen whose mothers work. The incorporation of the Buffalo Victory and Child Care Association was effected through a committee of five appointed by representatives of Buffalo's major industries.

The new group will share with the local government one-third of the cost of extensive facilities for caring for children of working mothers, the residual cost to be shared equally by the state and the mothers. Advantage will be taken of existing child-care facilities, especially schools, and the plan will be worked out in cooperation with the local War Council and the Board of Education.

"Buy a Bomber" Campaign

Oldsmobile workers are participating in a bond-buying campaign which has for its objective the purchase of a Mitchell B-25 bomber. The goal of this drive is $250,000 which employees are raising through the purchase of war bonds over and above their regular payroll deductions.

Application blanks are being distributed throughout the plant. Bond-selling booths have been erected in fifteen convenient locations, to be manned by persons authorized to accept cash and personal checks.

Everyone buying a bond is entitled to submit a suggestion for the name of the big bomber. These names will be referred to a corps of judges and the five best will be determined. A plant-wide vote will then be taken and every one will have an opportunity to select the winning name from these five.

Profit-sharing Pension Plan

During the twenty-seven years of its savings and profit-sharing pension plan, Sears, Roebuck and Company has contributed $52,840,969, which has been added to the employees' deposits. The fund, composed of employees' savings and company contributions, is invested in part in company stock. At present the fund is the largest holder of company stock, and owns 13½% of its outstanding shares.

In addition to the stockholdings, with a value of $12,356,914, each employee member has a cash credit balance in the fund. These cash credits totaled $12,356,918 as of April 1, 1943.

Discovering Hidden Talents

A great many companies have an established policy to attempt to place individuals on the jobs for which they are best fitted and on which they can do their best work. But the Beech Aircraft Corporation is one of the companies that actively seeks to put this policy into practice.

Its personnel department has designed a form, "Employee Report of Previous Skills and Semi-skills." These forms are distributed to employees by their department clerks. An employee possessing specialized skills or training not being put to use on his present job may fill out this form describing the type of work for which his background fits him. The form has a blank for the length of time the employee worked at his special skill and one for the employee's description of the kind of work performed.

These forms are returned to the personnel department's files. Requisitions for employees are checked against these files before outside applicants for these jobs are solicited and, wherever possible, promotions and transfers are made.

("Personnel Practices" *continued on page 331)*

Monthly Review of Labor Statistics, May-June, 1943

PUBLICITY attending the recent coal strikes has aroused public opinion regarding the significance of work stoppages in war production. Attention has been turned not only to the personal and political issues involved, but also to the important and direct bearing these strikes have on war output and civilian economy.

The apparent inability of existing public bodies to cope with the coal strike without the support of new legislation finally resulted in the passage of the Smith-Connally war labor disputes bill over a Presidential veto. The President did not say that the bill was anti-labor, as did a number of other government leaders, but that it "instead of discouraging strikes would stimulate labor unrest and give government sanction to strike agitation."

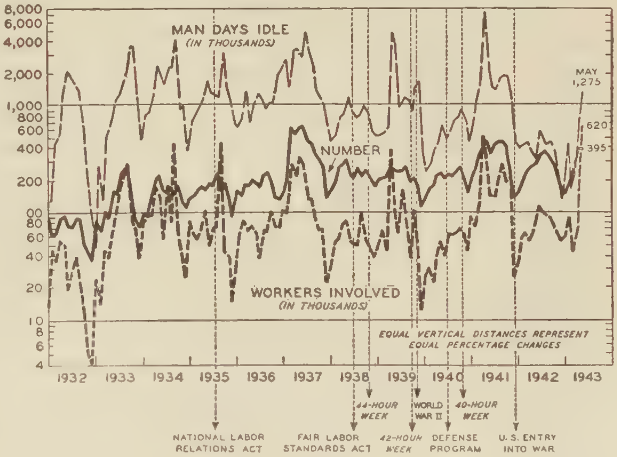
The act does indirectly sanction strikes, despite its being intended as an anti-strike measure. But it also offers the President a concrete basis for controlling strikes and gives the War Labor Board additional power to settle disputes threatening or causing interruption in war work. It authorizes the President to seize any plant, mine, or facility engaged in war production whose operation is threatened by a work stoppage. It further provides that once such seizure is made, any person who encourages or aids any interference or threatened interference of war production is subject to fine and imprisonment.

To the War Labor Board, the act gives the additional power to render decisions and give orders in cases involving war production even though either party to the dispute fails to appear at hearings or objects to decisions handed down by the board.

Despite the fact that the act was hastily prepared and is weak in places, it does give the War Labor Board and the President considerably increased power to deal with strikes. However, on June 30, eight days after the strikes of the miners were supposedly terminated and five days after the passage of the war labor disputes bill, 130,000 miners were still on strike. Mr. Lewis continued to threaten a renewal of the general strike in October if his demands were not met by then, and sooner if operation of the mines should be resumed by their owners. It would seem that the only tangible result of the coal situation was a continuation of the policy of penalizing management by seizing its property, regardless of who is at fault in the dispute or responsible for starting it.

Labor Disputes, 1932-1943

Source: United States Bureau of Labor Statistics



To date, despite the fact that the mines are in government possession, no attempt has been made to force a return of the absent miners to work by using the penal powers of the act. Furthermore, the War Labor Board has not been supported in its order that the union immediately sign a new contract with the mine owners in accordance with the previous findings and rulings of the board.

WAGE-RATE INCREASES AND WORKERS AFFECTED

Source: THE CONFERENCE BOARD

Date	25 Manufacturing Industries	
	Wage Earners Affected	Wage-rate Increase
1942		
January	3.7%	6.1%
February	3.0	5.7
March	4.1	6.3
April	4.0	7.1
May	4.7	6.4
June	4.3	7.5
July	4.6	7.1
August	9.6	5.8
September	5.7	6.5
October	5.3	6.7
November	6.6	6.7
December	2.0	5.0
1943		
January	0.6	14.4
February	1.3	7.6
March	0.9	6.0
April	0.6	5.9
May	1.3	7.9

For the country generally, the number of workers involved in strikes was apparently at one of the highest levels ever recorded. In May, 620,000 workers were idle because of strikes, or twice as many as in April and twenty times as many as were out of work in December, 1941. This figure is probably the highest recorded since 1881, when this series began, with the possible exception of the period from 1914-1922. The number of man days lost, 1,275,000, was the largest since November, 1941. The number of strikes beginning in May was 395—the same as in April and at the highest level since October, 1941. (See the accompanying chart for monthly data from 1926 on.) A table of strikes which began in June is given on page 327. From all appearances, strike activity in June remained high in comparison with that in recent months.

This increased strike activity comes in the face of improved earnings of workers in twenty-five manufacturing industries. In May, the average wage earner in these industries worked 45.2 hours a week for $1.010 an hour or for an average weekly return of $45.90. Although his weekly earnings had advanced 60.8% above the 1929 level, living costs had risen only 3.9%, resulting in a net increase of 54.8% in "real" weekly earnings.

COST OF LIVING

As shown in the accompanying table, increases in living costs on wartime budgets in the individual cities were considerably less pronounced in June than in previous months. In fact, increases were recorded in only twenty-three of the sixty-five cities for which such data are available.

G. CLARK THOMPSON
Division of Labor Statistics

PERCENTAGE CHANGES IN THE COST OF LIVING ON WARTIME BUDGETS IN 65 CITIES MAY TO JUNE, 1943

Source: THE CONFERENCE BOARD

City	Percentage Change	City	Percentage Change	City	Percentage Change	City	Percentage Change
Baltimore	+1.8	Roanoke, Va.	+0.2	Buffalo	−0.2	Fall River	−0.6
Lansing	+1.3	Chicago	+0.1	Dallas	−0.2	Front Royal, Va.	−0.6
New York	+1.3	Los Angeles	+0.1	Duluth	−0.2	Minneapolis	−0.6
Lewistown, Pa.	+1.2	Lynn	+0.1	Meadville, Pa.	−0.2	San Francisco	−0.6
Syracuse	+1.2	Manchester, N. H.	+0.1	Muskegon	−0.2	St. Louis	−0.7
Newark	+1.1	Spokane	+0.1	New Haven	−0.2	Wilmington, Del.	−0.7
Richmond	+1.1	Birmingham	0	Rockford, Ill.	−0.2	Rochester	−0.8
Cincinnati	+1.0	Bridgeport	0	St. Paul	−0.2	Seattle	−0.9
Akron	+0.6	Cleveland	0	Toledo	−0.2	Wausau, Wis.	−0.9
Providence	+0.5	Louisville	0	Portland, Ore.	−0.4	Grand Rapids	−0.9
Sacramento	+0.5	New Orleans	0	Denver	−0.5	Des Moines	−1.0
Atlanta	+0.2	Pittsburgh	0	Kansas City, Mo.	−0.5	Milwaukee	−1.0
Boston	+0.2	Chattanooga	−0.1	Macon	−0.5	Detroit	−1.1
Erie, Pa.	+0.2	Houston	−0.1	Memphis	−0.5	Trenton, N. J.	−1.2
Evansville, Ind.	+0.2	Oakland	−0.1	Parkersburg, W. Va.	−0.5	Philadelphia	−1.6
Huntington, W. Va.	+0.2	Omaha	−0.1	Dayton	−0.6	Youngstown	−2.6
Indianapolis	+0.2						

Earnings, Hours, Employment and Payrolls in Manufacturing, May, 1943

EARNINGS, man hours and payrolls of wage earners in twenty-five manufacturing industries in May, 1943, reached new peaks, according to THE CONFERENCE BOARD's regular monthly survey. Employment again declined slightly in May, but was still higher than in any month prior to February of this year. The average number of hours worked in one week was the greatest since April, 1930.

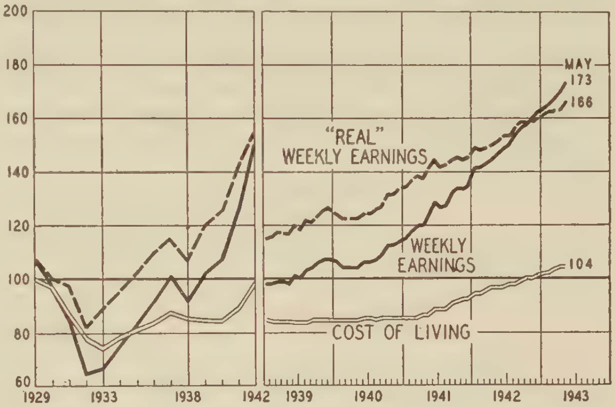
HOURLY AND WEEKLY EARNINGS

Hourly earnings of all wage earners in the twenty-five manufacturing industries increased in May for the thirty-fourth consecutive month. For the first time, they averaged more than a dollar an hour, and at $1.010 were 1.2% more than in April and 33.1% more than in January, 1941. Since wage-rate increases granted during the month averaged only 0.1% for all workers, the increase in hourly earnings from April to May principally reflects additional overtime worked at the premium rate. The average work week was 0.7% longer than in April.

The combined effect of higher hourly earnings and longer working hours pushed weekly earnings to a new high of $45.90 for May, or 2.0% more than in April and 50% more than in January, 1941. As living costs rose only 0.3% from April to May, "real" weekly earnings, or dollar weekly income in terms of the commodities and services it will purchase, increased 1.7% during the month. Real weekly earnings have risen 10.1% since May, 1942, and 24.1% since January, 1941.

AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS, 25 MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

Source: THE CONFERENCE BOARD



AVERAGE HOURS AND TOTAL MAN HOURS

The average wage earner in the twenty-five manufacturing industries worked 45.2 hours in May, the longest work week recorded since April, 1930. In six of the individual industries, average working hours declined since April, and in four others the previous month's level was maintained, but the increases in the remaining fifteen industries were sufficient to

EARNINGS, HOURS, EMPLOYMENT, PAYROLLS, ALL WAGE EARNERS, 25 MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

NOTE: *Hourly earnings are not wage rates, because they include overtime and incentive payments*

Date	Average Hourly Earnings	Average Weekly Earnings	Average Actual Hours per Week per Wage Earner	Average Nominal Hours per Week per Wage Earner	Index Numbers, 1923=100							
					Hourly Earnings		Weekly Earnings		Actual Hours per Week per Wage Earner	Employment	Total Man Hours	Payrolls
					Actual	Real[a]	Actual	Real[a]				
1942 May	$.906	$39.00	42.7	41.2	167.5	172.1	146.6	150.7	86.8	132.5	115.0	194.2
June	.917	39.52	42.7	41.2	169.5	174.2	148.5	152.6	86.8	134.2	116.5	199.3
July	.928	39.80	42.6	41.2	171.5	175.4	149.6	153.0	86.6	135.7	117.5	203.0
August	.940	40.87	43.2	41.2	173.8	177.2	153.6	156.6	87.8	137.9	121.1	211.8
September	.957	41.79	43.4	41.3	176.9	179.4	157.0	159.2	88.2	139.6	123.1	219.2
October	.958	42.10	43.6	41.4	177.1	177.6	158.2	158.7	88.6	141.6	125.5	224.0
November	.966	42.50	43.7	41.5	178.6	178.1	159.7	159.2	88.8	141.8	125.9	226.5
December	.970	42.98	44.2	41.6	179.3	177.5	161.5	159.9	89.8	145.2	130.4	234.5
1943 January	.979	43.56	44.3	41.9	181.0	178.5	163.7	161.4	90.0	146.3	131.7	239.5
February	.982	43.85	44.5	42.3	181.5	178.3	164.8	161.9	90.4	148.0	133.8	243.9
March	.987	44.30	44.7	42.6	182.4	177.4	166.5	162.0	90.9	148.4	134.9	247.1
April	.998r	45.02r	44.9	42.8	184.5r	177.9r	169.2r	163.2r	91.3	147.7	134.9	249.8
May	1.010	45.90	45.2	43.0	186.7	179.5	172.5	165.9	91.9	147.5	135.6	254.4

rRevised See footnotes on page 319

raise the overall average 0.7% for the month. Average hours of work a week have increased 12.4%, or 5.0 hours, since January, 1941. Total man hours, which reflect changes in both employment and average weekly hours, rose only 0.5% from April to May, since the increase in the length of the work week was partly offset by a reduction in average employment for the twenty-five industries.

EMPLOYMENT AND PAYROLLS

Employment in the twenty-five industries combined dropped slightly in May for the second consecutive month, but was still higher than in any month prior to February of this year. Fifteen of the individual industries showed declines ranging from 0.1% to 4.0%, but the decline in the aggregate amounted to only 0.1% since April. In the year since May, 1942, employment went up 11.3%, and the increase since January, 1941, amounted to 35.2%.

The effect of curtailed employment in May was more than offset by higher weekly earnings, so that the index of total payrolls rose for the twenty-second consecutive month. This payroll index increased 1.8% since April, 31.0% since May, 1942, and 102.7% since January, 1941.

AIRCRAFT AND SHIPBUILDING

Average hourly earnings of all workers in the aircraft industry were $1.055 in May, a new peak 1.8% above the average for April. The increase was 1.7% for female workers, who comprised 37% of all wage earners in the industry, and 2.1% for all male workers. While the men averaged slightly longer working hours than in April and received a weekly return of

EARNINGS AND HOURS, ALL WAGE EARNERS, MAY, 1943

NOTE: *Hourly earnings are not wage rates, because they include overtime and incentive payments*

INDUSTRY	Average Earnings				Average Hours per Week per Wage Earner			
	Hourly		Weekly		Actual		Nominal	
	May	April	May	April	May	April	May	April
Agricultural implement	$1.082	$1.089	$51.04	$51.05	47.2	46.9	46.1	45.9
Automobile[1]	1.299	1.281	60.93	58.42	46.9	45.6	43.0	42.5
Boot and shoe	.698	.689	28.08	28.32	40.2	41.1	40.7	40.7
Chemical	1.021	1.019	47.99	46.06	47.0	45.2	41.8	41.5
Rayon and allied products	.910	.894	41.31	36.74	45.4	41.1	41.3	40.4
Cotton—North	.747	.743	32.43	32.49	43.4	43.7	40.7	40.7
Electrical manufacturing	1.062	1.058	49.50	49.25	46.6	46.6	42.4	42.4
Furniture[2]	.947	.933	45.55	44.86	48.1	48.1	43.1	43.0
Hosiery and knit goods	.770	.761	31.48	31.06	40.9	40.8	41.0	41.0
Iron and steel[3]	1.134	1.112	47.49	47.22	41.9	42.5	42.0	42.2
Leather tanning and finishing	.862	.850	36.69	36.78	42.6	43.3	42.9	43.0
Lumber and millwork	1.072	1.044	49.38	47.23	46.1	45.3	46.1	45.4
Meat packing	.885	.863	39.17	35.93	44.3	41.6	40.5	40.3
Paint and varnish	.927	.907	45.42	42.27	49.0	46.6	40.6	40.5
Paper and pulp	.876	.867	41.44	40.54	47.3	46.8	42.7	42.0
Paper products	.803	.803	35.62	35.61	44.4	44.3	41.7	41.8
Printing—book and job	.928	.913	40.78	39.94	43.9	43.7	40.7	40.7
Printing—news and magazine	1.065	1.037	41.56	40.37	39.0	38.9	39.7	39.7
Rubber	1.110	1.093*r*	50.64	49.50*r*	45.6	45.3	42.3	42.4
1. Rubber tires and tubes	1.215	1.196*r*	55.57	53.93*r*	45.7	45.1	42.9	42.9
2. Other rubber products	.969	.960*r*	44.08	43.66*r*	45.5	45.5	41.6	41.7
Silk and rayon	.718	.730	29.69	30.03	41.4	41.1	42.3	42.1
Wool	.874	.874	37.47	37.64	42.9	43.1	41.2	41.3
1. Woolen and worsted goods	.855	.857	36.21	36.39	42.3	42.4	40.3	40.3
2. Other woolen products[4]	.903	.900	39.51	39.67	43.7	44.1	42.8	42.8
Foundries and machine shops	1.099	1.090	52.89	52.25	48.1	47.9	45.0	44.9
1. Foundries	1.054	1.049	49.41	49.36	46.9	47.1	43.0	42.9
2. Machines and machine tools	1.070	1.067	54.10	53.62	50.6	50.3	46.8	46.7
3. Heavy equipment[5]	1.162	1.156	55.24	54.84	47.5	47.5	45.6	45.6
4. Hardware and small parts	1.047	1.033	49.77	49.15	47.6	47.6	44.5	43.6
5. Other products	1.097	1.084	52.53	51.49	47.9	47.5	44.5	44.3
25 INDUSTRIES	$1.010	$.998*r*	$45.90	$45.02*r*	45.2	44.9	43.0	42.8
Cement	$.846	$.832	$34.45	$31.61	40.7	38.0	41.5	41.0
Petroleum refining	1.228	1.225	52.97	52.18	43.1	42.6	39.9	39.9
27 INDUSTRIES	$1.011	$.999	$45.91	$45.02*r*	45.2	44.8	42.9	42.8
Aircraft	$1.055	$1.036*r*	$48.00	$46.99*r*	45.5	45.4	47.3	47.3
Shipbuilding	1.260	1.233	58.70	59.85	46.6	48.5	47.6	47.6

See footnotes on page 319

$53.20, 2.7% more than in April, the women on a slightly shortened work week earned only 1.3% more a week than in the previous month. Weekly earnings for all workers rose 2.1% and averaged $48.00 for May.

Workers in the shipbuilding industry averaged $58.70 per week in May, 1.9% less than in April. A reduction of 3.9% in working hours a week was responsible for the decline, since average hourly earnings rose 2.2% above the level of the previous month. Women workers averaged more an hour than unskilled male workers, as they did in April, but the weekly earnings of the two groups were almost the same, since the women worked slightly fewer hours in May.

CEMENT AND PETROLEUM

Employment declined in the cement industry in May, but an increase of 7.1% in working hours raised total man hours worked above those for April. Higher hourly earnings—partly reflecting overtime worked at premium rates—together with the longer work week, brought a weekly return of $34.45, which was 9.0% more than in April. Total payrolls disbursed were also well above the April level. Both unskilled and skilled male workers averaged more hours of work a week, earned more for each hour of work, and received higher weekly earnings than in April.

Workers in the petroleum industry had slightly longer hours in May and received a fractionally larger hourly return. Their weekly earnings were $52.97, or 1.5% more than in April. Their average hourly earnings of $1.228 were higher than in any previous month and were exceeded only by the hourly earnings of the workers in the automobile and shipbuilding industries. In both of these latter industries, however, the workers averaged over 46 hours of work a week. This was over three hours more than the petroleum workers averaged.

LABOR STATISTICS IN MAY

Hourly earnings at $1.010 in May were 1.2% higher than in April, 11.5% above those a year before and 71.2% greater than in 1929.

Weekly earnings averaged $45.90 in May. They were 2.0% higher than in April, 17.7% higher than in May, 1942, and 60.8% more than in 1929.

EARNINGS, EMPLOYMENT, MAN HOURS, AND PAYROLLS, ALL WAGE EARNERS, MAY, 1943

Index Numbers, 1923 = 100

NOTE: *Hourly earnings are not wage rates, because they include overtime and incentive payments*

INDUSTRY	Average Earnings						Employment		Total Man Hours Worked		Payrolls	
	Hourly, Actual		Weekly									
			Actual		Real[a]							
	May	April	May	April	May	April	May	April	May	April	May	April
Agricultural implement	194.6	195.9	185.5	185.6	178.4	179.0	165.0	162.9	157.4	154.3	306.1	302.3
Automobile[1]	205.5	202.7	202.2	193.8	194.4	186.9	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*
Boot and shoe	141.0	139.2	124.2	125.3	119.4	120.8	90.0	92.0	79.4	82.9	111.8	115.3
Chemical	201.8	201.4	178.3	171.2	171.4	165.1	161.1	161.5	142.3	137.3	287.2	276.5
Cotton—North	167.9	167.0	152.7	153.0	146.8	147.5	49.8	50.7	45.2	46.3	76.0	77.6
Electrical manufacturing	187.0	186.3	182.7	181.8	175.7	175.3	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*
Furniture[2]	183.2	180.5	182.6	179.9	175.6	173.5	140.9	140.4	140.6	140.1	257.3	252.6
Hosiery and knit goods	201.6	199.2	178.2	175.8	171.3	169.5	87.0	87.5	76.8	77.1	155.0	153.8
Iron and steel[3]	190.3	186.6	138.8	138.0	133.5	133.1	126.7	127.2	92.0	93.7	175.9	175.5
Leather tanning and finishing	177.4	174.9	158.4	158.8	152.3	153.1	80.5	82.7	72.0	75.3	127.5	131.3
Lumber and millwork	226.6	220.7	210.8	201.7	202.7	194.5	57.5	58.2	53.5	53.3	121.2	117.4
Meat packing	187.1	182.5	166.4	152.6	160.0	147.2	132.7	138.2	118.2	115.7	220.8	210.9
Paint and varnish	173.6	169.9	170.9	159.1	164.3	153.4	141.3	141.1	139.0	132.1	241.5	224.5
Paper and pulp	173.8	172.0	158.9	155.4	152.8	149.9	113.3	113.7	103.4	102.7	180.0	176.7
Paper products	176.1	176.1	163.5	163.5	157.2	157.7	178.9	177.3	166.9	165.1	292.5	289.9
Printing—book and job	142.1	139.8	136.2	133.4	131.0	128.6	124.6	125.3	119.1	119.3	169.7	167.2
Printing—news and magazine	153.7	149.6	133.1	129.3	128.0	124.7	124.1	123.9	107.6	107.0	165.2	160.2
Rubber	177.3	174.6*r*	180.7	176.6*r*	173.7	170.3*r*	114.5	115.0*r*	116.6	116.3*r*	206.9	203.1*r*
Silk and rayon	144.8	147.2	128.9	130.4	123.9	125.7	84.2	85.1	74.9	75.2	108.5	111.0
Wool	173.1	173.1	156.3	157.0	150.3	151.4	81.7	82.4	73.8	74.7	127.7	129.4
Foundries and machine shops	191.8	190.2	186.4	184.2	179.2	177.6	247.5	247.0*r*	240.1	238.6*r*	461.3	455.0*r*
1. Foundries	178.6	177.8	166.9	166.7	160.5	160.8	156.9	155.7	146.5	146.0	261.9	259.6
2. Machines and machine tools	194.9	194.4	198.2	196.4	190.6	189.4	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*
3. Heavy equipment[6]	173.4	172.5	167.3	166.1	160.9	160.2	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*
4. Hardware and small parts	204.5	201.8	200.6	198.1	192.9	191.0	217.6	217.2*r*	213.5	213.1*r*	436.5	430.3*r*
5. Other products	195.9	193.6	192.2	188.4	184.8	181.7	271.8	271.9	266.9	264.6	522.4	512.3
25 INDUSTRIES	186.7	184.5*r*	172.5	169.2*r*	165.9	163.2*r*	147.5	147.7	135.6	134.9	254.4	249.8

NOTE: No basic 1923 data are available, hence no indexes are given for the following: rubber tires and tubes, other rubber products, woolen and worsted goods, other woolen products, cement, petroleum refining, and "27 industries."

See footnotes on page 319

EARNINGS AND HOURS, MALE AND FEMALE WAGE EARNERS, MAY, 1943

Note: *Hourly earnings are not wage rates, because they include overtime and incentive payments*

Industry	All Male						Female					
	Average Earnings				Average Hours per Week per Wage Earner		Average Earnings				Average Hours per Week per Wage Earner	
	Hourly		Weekly				Hourly		Weekly			
	May	April	May	April	May	April	May	April	May	April	May	April
Agricultural implement	$1.105	$1.109	$52.32	$52.09	47.3	47.0	$.825	$.819	$37.18	$36.93	45.1	45.1
Automobile[1]	1.358	1.338r	64.75	61.87r	47.7	46.3	1.044	1.025r	45.82	44.03r	43.9	43.0
Boot and shoe	.828	.813	34.41	34.26	41.6	42.1	.575	.572	22.43	22.97	39.0	40.1
Chemical	1.094	1.090	52.51	50.36	48.0	46.2	.694	.685	30.12	28.02	43.4	40.9
Rayon and allied products	1.001	.985	43.04	41.67	43.0	42.3	.664	.660	25.76	25.08	38.8	38.0
Cotton—North	.813	.811	37.14	37.50	45.7	46.2	.669	.662	27.41	27.16	41.0	41.0
Electrical manufacturing	1.197	1.192	57.59	57.18	48.1	48.0	.794	.787	34.89	34.58	44.0	43.9
Furniture[2]	1.015	.997	50.99	49.04	50.2	49.2	.739	.720	31.48	32.16	42.6	44.7
Hosiery and knit goods	1.053	1.046	45.30	44.74	43.0	42.8	.648	.639	25.93	25.56	40.0	40.0
Iron and steel[3]	1.134	1.112	47.49	47.22	41.9	42.5	....	....	....	....	....	....
Leather tanning and finishing	.888	.874	38.23	38.24	43.1	43.7	.697	.685	27.71	27.69	39.7	40.4
Lumber and millwork	1.072	1.044	49.38	47.23	46.1	45.3	....	....	....	....	....	....
Meat packing	.936	.910	42.31	38.59	45.2	42.4	.676	.667	27.67	25.74	40.9	38.6
Paint and varnish	.966	.943	47.14	43.00	48.8	45.6	.730	.716	30.59	28.93	41.9	40.4
Paper and pulp	.901	.890	43.27	42.18	48.0	47.4	.637	.627	26.28	26.05	41.2	41.5
Paper products	.922	.922	42.76	42.83	46.4	46.4	.622	.614	25.88	25.34	41.6	41.3
Printing—book and job	1.090	1.071	49.32	47.98	45.2	44.8	.597	.587	24.76	24.47	41.5	41.7
Printing—news and magazine	1.165	1.136	45.65	44.50	39.2	39.2	.646	.634	24.75	24.05	38.3	37.9
Rubber	1.266	1.249r	60.64	59.31r	47.9	47.5	.803	.790r	33.52	32.81r	41.7	41.5
1. Rubber tires and tubes	1.333	1.315r	63.35	61.33r	47.5	46.7	.893	.875r	37.06	36.20r	41.5	41.3
2. Other rubber products	1.150	1.140r	55.89	55.78r	48.6	48.9	.728	.721r	30.53	30.02r	41.9	41.6
Silk and rayon	.802	.817	33.89	35.23	42.2	43.1	.593	.589	23.83	22.57	40.2	38.3
Wool	.942	.942	42.07	42.10	44.7	44.7	.760	.758	30.49	30.74	40.1	40.6
1. Woolen and worsted goods	.915	.920	40.36	40.55	44.1	44.1	.768	.765	30.73	30.77	40.0	40.2
2. Other woolen products[4]	.977	.973	44.47	44.30	45.5	45.5	.743	.743	30.01	30.68	40.4	41.3
Foundries and machine shops	1.149	1.139	56.10	55.38	48.8	48.6	.826	.812	36.82	35.89	44.6	44.2
1. Foundries	1.069	1.062	50.47	50.34	47.2	47.4	.799	.782	33.34	32.29	41.7	41.3
2. Machines and machine tools	1.135	1.128	58.71	58.05	51.7	51.4	.785	.776	36.18	35.24	46.1	45.4
3. Heavy equipment[6]	1.176	1.169	56.14	55.64	47.7	47.6	.811	.802	35.23	35.06	43.5	43.7
4. Hardware and small parts	1.126	1.110	55.08	54.31	48.9	48.9	.798	.786	34.84	34.40	43.7	43.8
5. Other products	1.163	1.149	56.78	55.66	48.8	48.4	.858	.840	38.31	37.07	44.6	44.2
25 INDUSTRIES	$1.096	$1.082r	$51.02	$49.89r	46.4	46.0	$.696	$.688r	$28.75	$28.35r	41.1	41.1
Cement	$.846	$.832	$34.45	$31.61	40.7	38.0	....	....	....	....	....	....
Petroleum refining	1.228	1.225	52.97	52.18	43.1	42.6	....	....	....	....	....	....
27 INDUSTRIES	$1.096	$1.082r	$50.91	$49.77r	46.3	45.9	....	....	....	....	....	....
Aircraft	$1.137	$1.114r	$53.20	$51.81r	46 8	46.5	$.904	$.889r	$39.12	$38.61r	43.3	43.4
Shipbuilding	1.267	1.240	59.13	60.28	46.7	48.6	.990	.961	44.31	44.18	44.7	46.0

See footnotes on page 319

Hours a week advanced 0.7% in May to average 45.2, 5.9% more than in May, 1942. Since 1929 they have declined 6.4%, or 3.1 hours.

"Real" weekly earnings, or dollar earnings adjusted for changes in the cost of living, rose 1.7% in May and were 10.1% higher than in May, 1942, and 54.8% above the 1929 average.

Employment declined 0.1% in May but was 11.3% above the level of May, 1942, and 46.0% more than in 1929.

Man hours increased 0.5% in May and were 17.9% higher than in May, 1942, and 36.7% greater than in 1929.

Payrolls at 254.4 (1923=100) showed increases of 1.8% since April, 31.0% since May, 1942, and 134.7% since 1929.

Manufacturing workers in May received the highest hourly earnings recorded since this series was begun. They worked more hours in a week than in any previous month since April, 1930. Despite higher living costs, their real weekly earnings reached a new peak level. Employment was again slightly under the March peak, but was still higher than at any time before February of this year.

Manufacturing plants were operated the greatest number of man hours and disbursed the largest payrolls for any month since these surveys were initiated.

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Division of Labor Statistics

EARNINGS AND HOURS, UNSKILLED AND SKILLED AND SEMI-SKILLED MALE WAGE EARNERS, MAY, 1943

NOTE: *Hourly earnings are not wage rates, because they include overtime and incentive payments*

INDUSTRY	UNSKILLED						SKILLED AND SEMI-SKILLED					
	Average Earnings				Average Hours per Week per Wage Earner		Average Earnings				Average Hours per Week per Wage Earner	
	Hourly		Weekly				Hourly		Weekly			
	May	April	May	April	May	April	May	April	May	April	May	April
Agricultural implement	$.900	$.892	$42.59	$42.76	47.3	47.9	$1.135	$1.140	$53.72	$53.41	47.3	46.9
Automobile[1]	1.115	1.115*r*	50.07	51.09*r*	44.9	45.8	1.393	1.371*r*	67.00	63.50*r*	48.1	46.3
Boot and shoe	.456	.453	18.83	19.52	41.3	43.1	.841	.826	34.96	34.77	41.6	42.1
Chemical	.913	.913	42.91	41.18	47.0	45.1	1.150	1.143	55.43	53.04	48.2	46.4
Rayon and allied products	.738	.733	30.33	29.98	41.1	40.9	1.028	1.012	44.31	42.81	43.1	42.3
Cotton—North	.726	.724	32.53	32.62	44.8	45.1	.852	.851	39.25	39.77	46.1	46.8
Electrical manufacturing	.875	.872	40.81	40.76	46.6	46.7	1.234	1.228	59.57	59.13	48.3	48.1
Furniture[2]	.783	.776	37.66	36.96	48.1	47.6	1.056	1.036	53.45	51.24	50.6	49.5
Hosiery and knit goods	.661	.660	30.08	30.04	45.5	45.5	1.090	1.082	46.63	46.03	42.8	42.5
Iron and steel[3]	.872	.855	35.39	34.55	40.6	40.4	1.186	1.162	50.01	49.84	42.2	42.9
Leather tanning and finishing	.649	.659	26.68	27.59	41.1	41.9	.949	.930	41.37	41.14	43.6	44.2
Lumber and millwork	.792	.776	35.20	33.74	44.4	43.5	1.145	1.117	53.30	51.11	46.5	45.8
Meat packing	.776	.775	34.60	32.10	44.6	41.4	1.016	.982	46.23	42.17	45.5	42.9
Paint and varnish	.808	.787	36.44	34.00	45.1	43.2	1.035	1.016	52.79	47.75	51.0	47.0
Paper and pulp	.761	.754	35.16	34.47	46.2	45.7	.962	.951	47.06	45.79	48.9	48.1
Paper products	.737	.735	32.62	33.28	44.2	45.3	.986	.991	46.49	46.44	47.2	46.9
Printing—book and job	.676	.655	30.07	29.13	44.5	44.4	1.262	1.242	57.48	55.87	45.6	45.0
Printing—news and magazine	.740	.713	27.23	26.44	36.8	37.1	1.274	1.247	50.76	49.60	39.9	39.8
Rubber	.944	.915	44.27	42.36	46.9	46.3	1.274	1.258*r*	61.08	59.78*r*	47.9	47.5
1 Rubber tires and tubes	1.022	1.000	48.44	46.80	47.4	46.8	1.342	1.323*r*	63.78	61.73*r*	47.5	46.6
2. Other rubber products	.726	.718	33.00	32.37	45.4	45.1	1.160	1.150*r*	56.43	56.40*r*	48.7	49.0
Wool	.763	.763	33.42	32.93	43.8	43.2	1.028	1.029	46.41	46.75	45.1	45.4
1. Woolen and worsted goods	.777	.779	33.59	33.00	43.2	42.3	1.005	1.011	44.94	45.79	44.7	45.3
2. Other woolen products[4]	.730	.724	33.00	32.77	45.2	45.3	1.053	1.048	48.02	47.80	45.6	45.6
Foundries and machine shops	.932	.930	44.78	44.76	48.0	48.1	1.186	1.175	58.09	57.29	49.0	48.7
1. Foundries	.870	.864	40.51	40.02	46.6	46.3	1.151	1.146	54.62	54.84	47.5	47.9
2. Machines and machine tools	.973	.984	49.51	50.09	50.9	50.9	1.161	1.152	60.19	59.34	51.9	51.5
3. Heavy equipment	.936	.930	44.08	43.96	47.1	47.3	1.213	1.208	58.02	57.54	47.8	47.7
4. Hardware and small parts	.899	.892	43.88	43.76	48.8	49.1	1.162	1.145	56.86	56.01	48.9	48.9
5. Other products	.959	.956	46.14	46.31	48.1	48.4	1.192	1.177	58.34	57.03	48.9	48.4
24 INDUSTRIES[5]	$.852	$.845	$38.73	$38.16*r*	45.3	45.0	$1.156	$1.141*r*	$54.14	$52.89*r*	46.7	46.3
Cement	$.736	$.724	$30.20	$26.85	41.0	37.1	$.862	$.848	$35.06	$32.34	40.7	38.1
Petroleum refining	.930	.916	38.80	38.55	41.7	42.1	1.261	1.261	54.61	53.81	43.3	42.7
26 INDUSTRIES[5]	$ 852	$.844*r*	$38.66	$38.07	45.3	44.9	$1.156	$1.141*r*	$53.99	$52.74*r*	46.6	46.2
Aircraft	$1.011	$.990*r*	$44.96	$44.07*r*	44.5	44.5	$1.143	$1.121*r*	$53.64	$52.24*r*	46.9	46.6
Shipbuilding	.980	.954	44 47	45.13	45.4	47.3	1.323	1.298	62.09	63.43	46.9	48.9

NOTE: The wage data here given are for cash payments only and do not take into consideration the value of such wage equivalents as reduced or free house rents or other special services rendered by the company to employees. Various forms of wage equivalents are in use in industrial establishments in many localities, but the part which they play as compensation for work performed cannot be taken into account in a study of this character.

[1] Based on data collected by the Automobile Manufacturers Association and THE CONFERENCE BOARD; revised data since January, 1941, available upon request.

[2] Includes wood, metal, and upholstered household and office furniture.

[3] Based on data collected by the American Iron and Steel Institute and THE CONFERENCE BOARD.

[4] Principally rugs.

[5] Silk and rayon industry not included, as adequate data for unskilled and skilled groups are not available for this industry.

[6] Beginning with February, 1943, earnings and hours data for female wage earners were also presented. Figures for "all wage earners" and "all male wage earners" previously published are comparable to figures for "all male wage earners" currently shown.

*a*Indexes of "real" earnings are based upon THE CONFERENCE BOARD's indexes of the cost of living in the United States on prewar budgets.

*p*Preliminary.

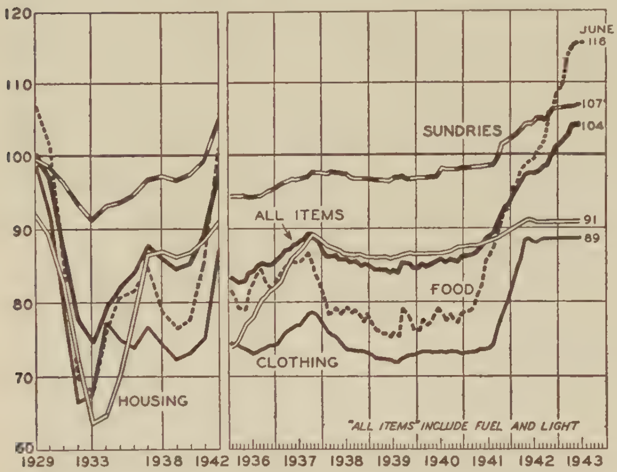
*r*Revised.

*n.a.*Not available for publication; included in total indexes.

Cost of Living, United States and 70 Cities, June

LIVING costs on a wartime budget for wage earners' families in the United States advanced 0.1% in June, 1943. Food prices, which have recently led the advances, rose only 0.1%. Items of the sundries group increased 0.4% over the month, and clothing costs rose 0.1%. A decline of 0.3% occurring in the fuel and light group reflected a reduction in the retail price of coal, while housing costs remained at the same level for the ninth consecutive month.

COST OF LIVING IN THE UNITED STATES
Index Numbers, 1923 = 100
Source: THE CONFERENCE BOARD



THE CONFERENCE BOARD's index of the cost of living (1923=100) now stands at 104.3, or 7.1% above that of a year ago, and 21.3% more than in January, 1941, the base month for the Little Steel formula. Since June, 1942, food prices have shown the greatest rise of 16.5%. The purchasing value of the 1923 dollar was 95.9¢ in June, 1943, 96.0¢ in May, 1943, and 102.7¢ a year ago.

In twenty-three of the sixty-five industrial cities for which indexes on a wartime basis are available, the cost of living rose over the month. The largest rise of 1.8% occurred in Baltimore, but there were also increases of 1.0% or more in the following: Lansing, 1.3%; New York, 1.3%; Lewistown, 1.2%; Syracuse, 1.2%; Newark, 1.1%; Richmond, 1.1%; Cincinnati, 1.0%. In six cities—Birmingham, Bridgeport, Cleveland, Louisville, New Orleans, Pittsburgh—no change took place, while in thirty-six other cities declines were recorded. Since June, 1942, living costs have advanced in all cities for which figures are available. These advances ranged from 4.4% in Houston to 9.6% in Baltimore. The yearly increase was 8.8% in Newark and Sacramento; 8.6% in New York; 8.5% in San Francisco; 8.4% in Los Angeles; and 8.1% in Memphis.

Revised indexes for Evansville, Indiana, Lewistown, Pennsylvania, and Trenton, New Jersey, are incorporated in this issue; data for earlier months are available upon request.

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CHANGES IN THE COST OF LIVING ON A WARTIME BUDGET, JUNE, 1943

Item	Index Numbers, 1923=100			Percentage Changes	
	June, 1943	May, 1943	June, 1942	May, 1943 to June, 1943	June, 1942 to June, 1943
Food[1]	115.9	115.8	99.5	+0.1	+16.5
Housing	90.8	90.8	91.0	0	-0.2
Clothing	88.6	88.5	88.1	+0.1	+0.6
Men's	*98.3*	*98.2*	*97.8*	*+0.1*	*+0.5*
Women's	*78.9*	*78.7*	*78.3*	*+0.3*	*+0.8*
Fuel and light[2]	92.3	92.6	90.2	-0.3	+2.3
Electricity	*67.3*	*67.3*	*67.6*	*0*	*-0.4*
Gas	*94.9*	*94.9*	*94.7*	*0*	*+0.2*
Sundries	107.1	106.7	104.3	+0.4	+2.7
Weighted average of all items	104.3	104.2	97.4	+0.1	+7.1
Purchasing value of dollar	95.9	96.0	102.7	-0.1	-6.6

[1] Based on THE CONFERENCE BOARD's indexes of food prices, June 15, 1942, May 15, 1943, and June 15, 1943.
[2] Includes fuel as well as electricity and gas.

COST OF LIVING IN 62 CITIES—WARTIME BUDGETS

Source: The Conference Board

Index Numbers, January, 1939=100

City	Index Numbers Jan., 1939=100			Percentage Changes	
	June 1943	May 1943	June 1942	May 1943 to June 1943	June 1942 to June 1943
Akron					
Food	155.0	157.4	140.3	-1.5	+10.5
Housing	113.7	113.7	116.2	0	-2.2
Clothing	121.4	121.4	120.8	0	+0.5
Fuel and light	112.4	112.5	109.3	-0.1	+2.8
Housefurnishings	118.4	118.4	118.4	0	0
Sundries	115.2	109.7	107.9	+5.0	+6.8
Weighted Total	127.3	126.5	120.8	+0.6	+5.4
Atlanta					
Food	150.6	149.9	126.5	+0.5	+19.1
Housing	99.2	99.2	99.2	0	0
Clothing	122.3	123.2	123.2	-0.7	-0.7
Fuel and light	110.6	110.7	106.9	-0.1	+3.5
Housefurnishings	117.1	117.1	117.7	0	-0.5
Sundries	111.7	111.7	108.2	0	+3.2
Weighted Total	122.8	122.6	114.1	+0.2	+7.6
Baltimore					
Food	161.5	160.8	130.8	+0.4	+23.5
Housing	103.2	103.2	113.3	0	-8.9
Clothing	120.3	120.3	120.0	0	+0.3
Fuel and light	105.0	105.0	102.7	0	+2.2
Housefurnishings	130.6	130.6	129.0	0	+1.2
Sundries	118.5	110.3	109.4	+7.4	+8.3
Weighted Total	130.5	128.2	119.1	+1.8	+9.6
Birmingham					
Food	154.7	154.7	135.5	0	+14.2
Housing	105.7	105.7	105.7	0	0
Clothing	123.6	124.2	124.4	-0.5	-0.6
Fuel and light	100.5	99.5	97.9	+1.0	+2.7
Housefurnishings	117.8	117.8	117.8	0	0
Sundries	110.7	110.7	109.2	0	+1.4
Weighted Total	123.6	123.6	117.5	0	+5.2
Boston					
Food	145.7	145.2	124.6	+0.3	+16.9
Housing	103.6	103.6	103.7	0	-0.1
Clothing	124.8	125.1	125.0	-0.2	-0.2
Fuel and light	120.7	120.8	114.2	-0.1	+5.7
Housefurnishings	122.5	122.5	122.3	0	+0.2
Sundries	111.7	111.8	109.3	-0.1	+2.2
Weighted Total	124.7	124.5	116.1	+0.2	+7.4
Bridgeport					
Food	147.6	147.3	130.2	+0.2	+13.4
Housing	106.5	106.5	108.3	0	-1.7
Clothing	124.2	124.5	120.7	-0.2	+2.9
Fuel and light	115.6	115.7	108.1	-0.1	+6.9
Housefurnishings	126.4	126.4	126.2	0	+0.2
Sundries	115.2	115.2	114.0	0	+1.1
Weighted Total	125.5	125.5	118.7	0	+5.7
Buffalo					
Food	152.0	153.0	131.5	-0.7	+15.6
Housing	114.7	114.7	114.5	0	+0.2
Clothing	118.2	118.0	118.7	+0.2	-0.4
Fuel and light	106.0	106.2	102.8	-0.2	+3.1
Housefurnishings	126.1	126.1	123.8	0	+1.9
Sundries	109.4	109.2	106.6	+0.2	+2.6
Weighted Total	125.3	125.6	117.7	-0.2	+6.5
Chattanooga					
Food	156.5	156.8	131.6	-0.2	+18.9
Housing	103.1	103.1	103.7	0	-0.6
Clothing	118.2	118.2	117.8	0	+0.3
Fuel and light	90.7	90.9	87.4	-0.2	+3.8
Housefurnishings	121.5	121.5	121.5	0	0
Sundries	107.6	107.5	106.4	+0.1	+1.1
Weighted Total	122.9	123.0	114.3	-0.1	+7.5
Chicago					
Food	143.9	143.5	124.5	+0.3	+15.6
Housing	105.5	105.5	105.4	0	+0.1
Clothing	122.6	122.5	122.7	+0.1	-0.1
Fuel and light	100.1	100.4	99.8	-0.3	+0.3
Housefurnishings	124.7	124.7	125.1	0	-0.3
Sundries	105.8	105.9	103.9	-0.1	+1.8
Weighted Total	120.1	120.0	113.1	+0.1	+6.2
Cincinnati					
Food	147.6	144.2	130.0	+2.4	+13.5
Housing	100.9	100.9	101.5	0	-0.6
Clothing	128.1	128.1	123.8	0	+3.5
Fuel and light	103.5	103.6	103.5	-0.1	0
Housefurnishings	124.1	124.1	123.9	0	+0.2
Sundries	108.2	107.9	106.3	+0.3	+1.8
Weighted Total	123.1	121.9	116.2	+1.0	+5.9
Cleveland					
Food	145.7	145.6	128.3	+0.1	+13.6
Housing	109.7	109.7	110.7	0	-0.9
Clothing	126.9	126.9	126.8	0	+0.1
Fuel and light	102.4	102.5	101.6	-0.1	+0.8
Housefurnishings	118.2	118.2	118.2	0	0
Sundries	114.5	114.4	109.4	+0.1	+4.7
Weighted Total	123.8	123.8	117.2	0	+5.6
Dallas					
Food	148.1	150.2	129.3	-1.4	+14.5
Housing	105.6	105.6	104.2	0	+1.3
Clothing	122.6	122.6	122.5	0	+0.1
Fuel and light	93.3	93.3	93.3	0	0
Housefurnishings	127.9	127.9	127.9	0	0
Sundries	111.6	110.4	108.9	+1.1	+2.5
Weighted Total	122.0	122.3	115.5	-0.2	+5.6
Dayton					
Food	149.3	153.5	130.0	-2.7	+14.8
Housing	105.1	105.1	113.5	0	-7.4
Clothing	121.7	121.5	121.1	+0.2	+0.5
Fuel and light	103.7	103.9	102.2	-0.2	+1.5
Housefurnishings	127.5	127.5	127.4	0	+0.1
Sundries	109.3	107.2	106.3	+2.0	+2.8
Weighted Total	123.1	123.9	117.5	-0.6	+4.8
Denver					
Food	149.8	152.3	129.1	-1.6	+16.0
Housing	105.6	105.6	104.0	0	+1.5
Clothing	121.2	121.6	121.7	-0.3	-0.4
Fuel and light	97.5	97.6	96.5	-0.1	+1.0
Housefurnishings	122.6	122.4	122.4	+0.2	+0.2
Sundries	111.2	110.1	108.4	+1.0	+2.6
Weighted Total	123.0	123.6	115.2	-0.5	+6.8

COST OF LIVING IN 62 CITIES—WARTIME BUDGETS (Continued)

Source: THE CONFERENCE BOARD

Index Numbers, January, 1939=100

City	Index Numbers Jan., 1939=100			Percentage Changes	
	June 1943	May 1943	June 1942	May 1943 to June 1943	June 1942 to June 1943
Des Moines					
Food	150.6	155.5	132.9	−3.2	+13.3
Housing	105.3	105.3	105.5	0	−0.2
Clothing	126.3	126.1	125.6	+0.2	+0.6
Fuel and light	110.1	110.1	108.5	0	+1.5
Housefurnishings	123.8	123.8	124.1	0	−0.2
Sundries	111.1	110.9	109.4	+0.2	+1.6
Weighted Total	123.2	124.5	117.3	−1.0	+5.0
Detroit					
Food	142.6	146.8	126.8	−2.9	+12.5
Housing	107.0	107.0	107.5	0	−0.5
Clothing	117.6	117.5	116.6	+0.1	+0.9
Fuel and light	113.5	113.9	108.8	−0.4	+4.3
Housefurnishings	133.1	133.1	132.9	0	+0.2
Sundries	103.7	103.6	101.8	+0.1	+1.9
Weighted Total	120.0	121.3	114.1	−1.1	+5.2
Duluth					
Food	147.4	148.1	130.4	−0.5	+13.0
Housing	100.1	100.1	100.5	0	−0.4
Clothing	125.0	124.5	123.9	+0.4	+0.9
Fuel and light	105.3	105.4	98.7	−0.1	+6.7
Housefurnishings	129.7	129.7	128.3	0	+1.1
Sundries	110.6	110.7	108.7	−0.1	+1.7
Weighted Total	123.0	123.2	116.0	−0.2	+6.0
Erie, Pa.[1]					
Food	159.1	158.7	140.4	+0.3	+13.3
Housing	109.9	109.9	109.9	0	0
Clothing	134.1	133.7	132.4	+0.3	+1.3
Fuel and light	109.7	109.7	107.1	0	+2.4
Housefurnishings	129.8	129.8	129.8	0	0
Sundries	118.7	118.7	115.7	0	+2.6
Weighted Total	131.3	131.1	123.7	+0.2	+6.1
Fall River					
Food	149.2	151.4	130.9	−1.5	+14.0
Housing	104.3	104.3	104.3	0	0
Clothing	118.8	118.8	119.8	0	−0.8
Fuel and light	115.5	115.6	107.3	−0.1	+7.6
Housefurnishings	114.3	114.3	114.3	0	0
Sundries	116.1	116.1	115.1	0	+0.9
Weighted Total	125.7	126.4	118.3	−0.6	+6.3
Front Royal, Va.					
Food	166.8	170.1	142.5	−1.9	+17.1
Housing	103.6	103.6	101.0	0	+2.6
Clothing	127.8	127.9	122.7	−0.1	+4.2
Fuel and light	103.9	103.9	103.5	0	+0.4
Housefurnishings	135.2	127.1	126.5	+6.4	+6.9
Sundries	110.8	110.8	107.9	0	+2.7
Weighted Total	126.3	127.0	117.4	−0.6	+7.6
Grand Rapids					
Food	156.4	158.8	130.9	−1.5	+19.5
Housing	106.5	106.5	106.6	0	−0.1
Clothing	122.3	122.5	120.8	−0.2	+1.2
Fuel and light	108.8	109.0	106.7	−0.2	+2.0
Housefurnishings	132.7	132.7	131.4	0	+1.0
Sundries	116.0	116.0	113.4	0	+2.3
Weighted Total	127.3	128.4	118.5	−0.9	+7.4

City	Index Numbers Jan., 1939=100			Percentage Changes	
	June 1943	May 1943	June 1942	May 1943 to June 1943	June 1942 to June 1943
Houston					
Food	142.6	142.7	126.9	−0.1	+12.4
Housing	105.7	105.7	105.7	0	0
Clothing	124.2	124.2	124.8	0	−0.5
Fuel and light	90.2	90.2	90.2	0	0
Housefurnishings	114.7	114.7	115.3	0	−0.5
Sundries	109.3	109.2	108.0	+0.1	+1.2
Weighted Total	119.2	119.3	114.2	−0.1	+4.4
Huntington, W. Va.					
Food	153.2	152.9	131.2	+0.2	+16.8
Housing	111.7	111.7	111.7	0	0
Clothing	118.4	118.3	118.7	+0.1	−0.3
Fuel and light	100.0	100.0	100.0	0	0
Housefurnishings	125.2	123.9	122.7	+1.0	+2.0
Sundries	110.9	110.9	110.5	0	+0.4
Weighted Total	125.6	125.4	118.2	+0.2	+6.3
Indianapolis					
Food	150.6	151.1	134.6	−0.3	+11.9
Housing	107.9	107.9	109.6	0	−1.6
Clothing	120.3	120.0	119.3	+0.3	+0.8
Fuel and light	108.2	106.2	102.8	+1.9	+5.3
Housefurnishings	124.7	124.7	124.5	0	+0.2
Sundries	112.3	112.0	110.7	+0.3	+1.4
Weighted Total	124.5	124.3	118.8	+0.2	+4.8
Kansas City, Mo.					
Food	139.4	141.1	123.9	−1.2	+12.5
Housing	105.2	105.2	105.2	0	0
Clothing	121.5	121.7	121.2	−0.2	+0.2
Fuel and light	108.8	108.8	106.6	0	+2.1
Housefurnishings	120.9	120.9	120.7	0	+0.2
Sundries	113.7	113.5	110.3	+0.2	+3.1
Weighted Total	120.6	121.2	114.6	−0.5	+5.2
Lansing					
Food	172.0	167.1	145.6	+2.9	+18.1
Housing	98.0	98.0	98.0	0	0
Clothing	123.5	123.8	123.3	−0.2	+0.2
Fuel and light	101.6	101.6	98.7	0	+2.9
Housefurnishings	130.3	129.6	129.8	+0.5	+0.4
Sundries	117.9	117.7	114.8	+0.2	+2.7
Weighted Total	129.5	127.9	120.5	+1.3	+7.5
Los Angeles					
Food	153.5	153.2	129.3	+0.2	+18.7
Housing	104.6	104.6	104.6	0	0
Clothing	118.5	118.5	116.5	0	+1.7
Fuel and light	96.2	96.2	96.2	0	0
Housefurnishings	123.8	123.8	123.7	0	+0.1
Sundries	110.1	110.0	104.1	+0.1	+5.8
Weighted Total	123.2	123.1	113.7	+0.1	+8.4
Louisville					
Food	150.4	150.3	131.1	+0.1	+14.7
Housing	103.9	103.9	104.9	0	−1.0
Clothing	119.4	119.6	121.1	−0.2	−1.4
Fuel and light	110.3	110.4	108.0	−0.1	+2.1
Housefurnishings	127.7	127.7	127.5	0	+0.2
Sundries	107.8	107.8	107.0	0	+0.7
Weighted Total	124.2	124.2	117.5	0	+5.7

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[1] Comparable data for April, 1943, were: food, 161.0; housing, 109.9; clothing, 133.7; fuel and light, 109.7; housefurnishings, 129.8; sundries, 118.6; and weighted total, 131.9.

COST OF LIVING IN 62 CITIES—WARTIME BUDGETS (Continued)

Source: The Conference Board

Index Numbers, January, 1939=100

City	Index Numbers Jan., 1939=100			Percentage Changes	
	June 1943	May 1943	June 1942	May 1943 to June 1943	June 1942 to June 1943
Lynn					
Food	147.9	147.7	126.6	+0.1	+16.8
Housing	104.5	104.5	104.1	0	+0.4
Clothing	123.2	123.2	123.7	0	−0.4
Fuel and light	116.0	116.1	112.3	−0.1	+3.3
Housefurnishings	125.6	125.6	125.6	0	0
Sundries	111.0	111.0	109.1	0	+1.7
Weighted Total	125.2	125.1	116.7	+0.1	+7.3
Macon					
Food	152.5	154.8	133.6	−1.5	+14.1
Housing	115.9	115.9	121.0	0	−4.2
Clothing	117.3	117.2	116.3	+0.1	+0.9
Fuel and light	100.5	100.5	99.3	0	+1.2
Housefurnishings	129.1	129.1	129.3	0	−0.2
Sundries	115.4	115.3	107.5	+0.1	+7.3
Weighted Total	126.8	127.5	118.2	−0.5	+7.3
Manchester, N. H.					
Food	154.0	153.8	132.1	+0.1	+16.6
Housing	102.9	102.9	103.0	0	−0.1
Clothing	119.1	119.1	118.3	0	+0.7
Fuel and light	109.6	109.8	105.5	−0.2	+3.9
Housefurnishings	125.2	123.8	123.8	+1.1	+1.1
Sundries	107.0	107.0	105.7	0	+1.2
Weighted Total	126.0	125.9	117.3	+0.1	+7.4
Meadville, Pa.[1]					
Food	152.3	152.9	134.9	−0.4	+12.9
Housing	110.8	110.8	110.8	0	0
Clothing	116.5	117.1	116.1	−0.5	+0.3
Fuel and light	110.2	110.2	105.9	0	+4.1
Housefurnishings	130.2	128.7	124.6	+1.2	+4.5
Sundries	120.1	120.1	111.5	0	+7.7
Weighted Total	127.0	127.2	118.9	−0.2	+6.8
Memphis					
Food	164.4	166.6	135.5	−1.3	+21.3
Housing	109.4	109.4	109.2	0	+0.2
Clothing	128.0	127.8	128.0	+0.2	0
Fuel and light	102.0	102.2	100.1	−0.2	+1.9
Housefurnishings	128.6	127.5	127.4	+0.9	+0.9
Sundries	105.8	105.7	103.1	+0.1	+2.6
Weighted Total	126.7	127.3	117.2	−0.5	+8.1
Milwaukee					
Food	149.0	153.1	129.1	−2.7	+15.4
Housing	103.3	103.3	103.4	0	−0.1
Clothing	127.7	128.1	122.3	−0.3	+4.4
Fuel and light	107.6	107.6	104.0	0	+3.5
Housefurnishings	125.5	125.3	125.1	+0.2	+0.3
Sundries	112.6	112.5	109.4	+0.1	+2.9
Weighted Total	123.9	125.2	115.9	−1.0	+6.9
Minneapolis					
Food	148.8	151.4	127.7	−1.7	+16.5
Housing	103.7	103.7	103.4	0	+0.3
Clothing	125.3	125.0	123.7	+0.2	+1.3
Fuel and light	102.6	102.6*r*	100.0	0	+2.6
Housefurnishings	122.1	122.2	122.1	−0.1	0
Sundries	112.7	112.7	110.6	0	+1.9
Weighted Total	123.2	124.0*r*	115.4	−0.6	+6.8
Muskegon					
Food	168.7	171.1	143.9	−1.4	+17.2
Housing	115.2	115.2	115.2	0	0
Clothing	122.6	122.7	120.4	−0.1	+1.8
Fuel and light	112.5	112.5	110.7	0	+1.6
Housefurnishings	118.8	118.8	118.7	0	+0.1
Sundries	111.3	109.7	108.8	+1.5	+2.3
Weighted Total	130.1	130.4	121.7	−0.2	+6.9
Newark					
Food	152.6	149.2	125.0	+2.3	+22.1
Housing	101.4	101.4	101.4	0	0
Clothing	120.0	119.8	121.0	+0.2	−0.8
Fuel and light	104.6	104.8	101.3	−0.2	+3.3
Housefurnishings	129.4	129.4	129.1	0	+0.2
Sundries	106.3	105.8	104.5	+0.5	+1.7
Weighted Total	122.8	121.5	112.9	+1.1	+8.8
New Haven					
Food	143.5	143.9	126.5	−0.3	+13.4
Housing	105.3	105.3	105.6	0	−0.3
Clothing	119.5	119.3	119.9	+0.2	−0.3
Fuel and light	109.7	109.8	104.3	−0.1	+5.2
Housefurnishings	124.4	124.4	124.9	0	−0.4
Sundries	106.7	106.9	105.8	−0.2	+0.9
Weighted Total	120.2	120.4	114.2	−0.2	+5.3
New Orleans					
Food	152.2	152.2	134.7	0	+13.0
Housing	110.6	110.6	110.8	0	−0.2
Clothing	121.0	121.0	119.1	0	+1.6
Fuel and light	103.2	103.2	103.2	0	0
Housefurnishings	128.3	128.3	128.0	0	+0.2
Sundries	106.1	106.1	103.9	0	+2.1
Weighted Total	126.6	126.6	119.1	0	+6.3
New York					
Food	151.7	147.3	127.2	+3.0	+19.3
Housing	100.8	100.8	100.7	0	+0.1
Clothing	114.2	113.8	113.2	+0.4	+0.9
Fuel and light	110.8	111.1	106.7	−0.3	+3.8
Housefurnishings	127.7	127.7	128.8	0	−0.9
Sundries	107.3	107.3	104.7	0	+2.5
Weighted Total	123.4	121.8	113.6	+1.3	+8.6
Oakland					
Food	156.0	156.2	133.7	−0.1	+16.7
Housing	131.5	131.5	131.5	0	0
Clothing	124.3	124.4	122.0	−0.1	+1.9
Fuel and light	78.0	78.0*r*	84.9	0	−8.1
Housefurnishings	119.4	119.3	119.5	+0.1	−0.1
Sundries	103.0	103.0	100.9	0	+2.1
Weighted Total	127.1	127.2*r*	119.2	−0.1	+6.6
Omaha					
Food	152.4	152.9	134.4	−0.3	+13.4
Housing	100.6	100.6	100.6	0	0
Clothing	120.2	120.3	120.7	−0.1	−0.4
Fuel and light	105.1	104.8	103.3	+0.3	+1.7
Housefurnishings	131.2	130.7	132.2	+0.4	−0.8
Sundries	111.9	111.9	110.5	0	+1.3
Weighted Total	123.2	123.3	117.1	−0.1	+5.2

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[1] Comparable data for April, 1943, are: food, 148.1; housing, 110.8; clothing, 117.1; fuel and light, 110.2; housefurnishings, 128.7; sundries, 120.1; weighted total, 125.7

COST OF LIVING IN 62 CITIES—WARTIME BUDGETS (Continued)

Source: The Conference Board

Index Numbers, January, 1939=100

City	Index Numbers Jan., 1939=100			Percentage Changes	
	June 1943	May 1943	June 1942	May 1943 to June 1943	June 1942 to June 1943
Parkersburg, W. Va.					
Food	151.0	152.8	133.4	−1.2	+13.2
Housing	104.2	104.2	104.2	0	0
Clothing	123.7	123.9	123.3	−0.2	+0.3
Fuel and light	94.6	94.6	94.6	0	0
Housefurnishings	125.0	124.6	123.8	+0.3	+1.0
Sundries	109.5	109.5	107.9	0	+1.5
Weighted Total	125.3	125.9	118.3	−0.5	+5.9
Philadelphia					
Food	150.8	156.6	131.5	−3.7	+14.7
Housing	102.9	102.9	103.0	0	−0.1
Clothing	122.4	122.3	122.7	+0.1	−0.2
Fuel and light	106.5	106.7	103.1	−0.2	+3.3
Housefurnishings	121.1	121.1	119.0	0	+1.8
Sundries	110.7	110.8	108.7	−0.1	+1.8
Weighted Total	125.4	127.5	117.5	−1.6	+6.7
Pittsburgh					
Food	151.5	151.5	130.5	0	+16.1
Housing	105.7	105.7	108.0	0	−2.1
Clothing	124.5	124.2	124.0	+0.2	+0.4
Fuel and light	110.3	110.3	108.8	0	+1.4
Housefurnishings	117.2	117.2	117.1	0	+0.1
Sundries	111.3	111.3	109.6	0	+1.6
Weighted Total	125.1	125.1	118.0	0	+6.0
Portland, Ore.					
Food	147.9	149.6	134.1	−1.1	+10.3
Housing	110.0	110.0	110.7	0	−0.6
Clothing	127.4	127.3	127.3	+0.1	+0.1
Fuel and light	124.9	124.9	116.4	0	+7.3
Housefurnishings	119.0	119.0	119.0	0	0
Sundries	112.0	112.0	108.8	0	+2.9
Weighted Total	125.3	125.8	119.6	−0.4	+4.8
Providence					
Food	148.8	146.9	126.1	+1.3	+18.0
Housing	103.3	103.3	103.3	0	0
Clothing	118.1	117.8	118.7	+0.3	−0.5
Fuel and light	113.6	113.7	107.3	−0.1	+5.9
Housefurnishings	125.3	125.3	125.3	0	0
Sundries	112.0	112.0	108.9	0	+2.8
Weighted Total	123.3	122.7	114.6	+0.5	+7.6
Richmond					
Food	158.0	153.5	134.1	+2.9	+17.8
Housing	102.7	102.7	102.7	0	0
Clothing	118.5	118.6	117.3	−0.1	+1.0
Fuel and light	105.2	105.2	103.9	0	+1.3
Housefurnishings	120.5	120.5	120.3	0	+0.2
Sundries	107.0	107.0	106.2	0	+0.8
Weighted Total	123.0	121.7	115.4	+1.1	+6.6
Roanoke, Va.					
Food	156.7	156.0	136.2	+0.4	+15.1
Housing	119.2	119.2	121.3	0	−1.7
Clothing	113.4	113.5	114.1	−0.1	−0.6
Fuel and light	104.1	104.1	99.2	0	+4.9
Housefurnishings	121.9	121.9	121.9	0	0
Sundries	112.0	112.1	111.1	−0.1	+0.8
Weighted Total	126.7	126.5	120.1	+0.2	+5.5
Rochester					
Food	151.0	154.4	133.2	−2.2	+13.4
Housing	103.9	103.9	103.9	0	0
Clothing	127.8	127.8	126.7	0	+0.9
Fuel and light	112.2	112.3	111.2	−0.1	+0.9
Housefurnishings	136.1	136.1	135.1	0	+0.7
Sundries	121.9	121.9	116.7	0	+4.5
Weighted Total	127.0	128.0	120.1	−0.8	+5.7
Rockford, Ill.					
Food	152.7	154.1	126.8	−0.9	+20.4
Housing	138.0	138.0	138.0	0	0
Clothing	120.5	120.1	120.9	+0.3	−0.3
Fuel and light	111.3	111.5	108.7	−0.2	+2.4
Housefurnishings	131.3	131.3	132.8	0	−1.1
Sundries	112.5	112.4*r*	110.8	+0.1	+1.5
Weighted Total	131.6	131.9*r*	122.7	−0.2	+7.3
Sacramento					
Food	154.3	154.4	127.8	−0.1	+20.7
Housing	104.1	104.1	104.3	0	−0.2
Clothing	121.7	121.4	120.5	+0.2	+1.0
Fuel and light	80.8	80.8*r*	84.7	0	−4.6
Housefurnishings	134.7	134.7	123.1	0	+9.4
Sundries	112.6	110.2	108.5	+2.2	+3.8
Weighted Total	124.4	123.8*r*	114.3	+0.5	+8.8
St. Louis					
Food	152.0	154.7	130.5	−1.7	+16.5
Housing	106.0	106.0	106.5	0	−0.5
Clothing	122.4	122.3	122.4	+0.1	0
Fuel and light	110.0	110.0	107.3	0	+2.5
Housefurnishings	118.1	118.0	118.1	+0.1	0
Sundries	107.6	107.5	106.3	+0.1	+1.2
Weighted Total	124.4	125.3	116.5	−0.7	+6.8
St. Paul					
Food	145.9	147.0	126.5	−0.7	+15.3
Housing	100.9	100.9	100.9	0	0
Clothing	119.4	119.4	119.3	0	+0.1
Fuel and light	104.0	104.1	100.4	−0.1	+3.6
Housefurnishings	125.6	125.6	123.9	0	+1.4
Sundries	112.5	112.5	109.9	0	+2.4
Weighted Total	121.5	121.8	114.1	−0.2	+6.5
San Francisco					
Food	168.0	169.9	141.0	−1.1	+19.1
Housing	98.3	98.3	98.3	0	0
Clothing	121.7	121.6	118.8	+0.1	+2.4
Fuel and light	79.2	79.2*r*	84.9	0	−6.7
Housefurnishings	119.6	119.6	119.4	0	+0.2
Sundries	105.0	104.9	101.8	+0.1	+3.1
Weighted Total	125.6	126.3*r*	115.8	−0.6	+8.5
Seattle					
Food	156.8	160.8	137.2	−2.5	+14.3
Housing	114.3	114.3	114.5	0	−0.2
Clothing	118.6	118.4	118.0	+0.2	+0.5
Fuel and light	112.1	112.4	109.2	−0.3	+2.7
Housefurnishings	119.9	119.9	120.1	0	−0.2
Sundries	108.9	108.3	106.3	+0.6	+2.4
Weighted Total	126.8	128.0	119.3	−0.9	+6.3

COST OF LIVING IN 62 CITIES—WARTIME BUDGETS (Continued)

Source: The Conference Board

Index Numbers, January, 1939=100

City	Index Numbers Jan., 1939=100			Percentage Changes	
	June 1943	May 1943	June 1942	May 1943 to June 1943	June 1942 to June 1943
Spokane					
Food	149.7	149.6	127.3	+0.1	+17.6
Housing	102.0	102.0	102.2	0	−0.2
Clothing	121.2	121.2	121.4	0	−0.2
Fuel and light	132.3	132.3*r*	130.7	0	+1.2
Housefurnishings	132.3	132.3	132.3	0	0
Sundries	109.8	109.7	107.3	+0.1	+2.3
Weighted Total	125.8	125.7*r*	117.5	+0.1	+7.1
Syracuse					
Food	156.8	153.4	136.9	+2.2	+14.5
Housing	116.2	116.2	114.5	0	+1.5
Clothing	125.8	125.3	125.0	+0.4	+0.6
Fuel and light	109.0	109.2	107.8	−0.2	+1.1
Housefurnishings	127.4	127.4	125.2	0	+1.8
Sundries	112.6	111.0	107.9	+1.4	+4.4
Weighted Total	128.0	126.5	120.1	+1.2	+6.6
Toledo					
Food	148.7	149.5	133.8	−0.5	+11.1
Housing	109.3	109.3	107.7	0	+1.5
Clothing	123.1	122.5	122.1	+0.5	+0.8
Fuel and light	106.4	106.5	104.9	−0.1	+1.4
Housefurnishings	122.2	121.9	120.6	+0.2	+1.3
Sundries	111.0	111.3	109.5	−0.3	+1.4
Weighted Total	123.7	124.0	118.3	−0.2	+4.6
Wausau, Wis.					
Food	157.0	160.5	135.7	−2.2	+15.7
Housing	102.7	102.7	102.7	0	0
Clothing	125.0	125.0	122.6	0	+2.0
Fuel and light	104.6	103.7	101.7	+0.9	+2.9
Housefurnishings	123.6	123.6	123.8	0	−0.2
Sundries	103.8	103.7	104.1	+0.1	−0.3
Weighted Total	125.8	127.0	117.8	−0.9	+6.8
Wilmington, Del.					
Food	151.2	154.3	134.7	−2.0	+12.2
Housing	104.0	104.0	104.0	0	0
Clothing	124.6	124.9	123.9	−0.2	+0.6
Fuel and light	103.3	103.4	100.2	−0.1	+3.1
Housefurnishings	115.4	115.4	115.1	0	+0.3
Sundries	110.0	109.0	108.0	+0.9	+1.9
Weighted Total	125.0	125.9	118.6	−0.7	+5.4
Youngstown					
Food	163.6	174.4	136.4	−6.2	+19.9
Housing	105.3	105.3	105.9	0	−0.6
Clothing	125.9	125.5	123.5	+0.3	+1.9
Fuel and light	106.7	106.7	105.7	0	+0.9
Housefurnishings	131.8	131.8	132.8	0	−0.8
Sundries	107.4	107.4	106.8	0	+0.6
Weighted Total	127.7	131.1	118.9	−2.6	+7.4

COST OF LIVING IN 3 CITIES—WARTIME BUDGETS[1]

City	May 1943 to June 1943	June 1942 to June 1943
Evansville, Ind.	Percentage Changes	
Food	+0.5	+19.5
Housing	0	−0.7
Clothing	−0.2	+0.2
Fuel and light	0	+2.6
Housefurnishings	+0.4	+0.7
Sundries	0	+0.7
Weighted Total	+0.2	+7.1
Lewistown, Pa.	Percentage Changes	
Food	+2.0	+15.2
Housing	0	0
Clothing	+0.8	+2.5
Fuel and light	0	+2.7
Housefurnishings	0	+0.3
Sundries	+1.4	+2.3
Weighted Total	+1.2	+7.2
Trenton, N. J.	Percentage Changes	
Food	−2.7	+12.7
Housing	0	+0.5
Clothing	+0.4	−1.2
Fuel and light	−0.2	+2.3
Housefurnishings	+0.2	+1.7
Sundries	0	+2.2
Weighted Total	−1.2	+5.8

[1] Data on wartime budgets for earlier months available upon request. Data for Anderson, Flint, Green Bay, Joliet, and Saginaw not yet available on the wartime budget basis. They will be published in subsequent mouths.

COST OF LIVING IN 62 CITIES—PREWAR BUDGETS

Source: The Conference Board

Index Numbers, January, 1939=100

	Weighted Total		Food		Housing		Clothing		Fuel-Light		House Furnishings		Sundries	
	June 1943	May 1943	June 1943	May 1943	June 1943	May 1943	June 1943	May 1943	June 1943	May 1943	June 1943	May 1943	June 1943	May 1943
United States[1]	104.0	104.0	115.9	116.1	90.8	90.8	88.6	88.5	93.1	93.2	*a*	*a*	107.5	107.1
Akron	128.1	127.5	155.5	158.6	113.7	113.7	121.4	121.4	112.4	112.5	118.4	118.4	117.6	112.7
Atlanta	121.3	122.2	148.9	148.6	99.2	99.2	122.3	123.2	110.6	110.7	117.1	117.1	110.0	112.5
Baltimore	130.2	128.2	159.2	159.3	103.2	103.2	120.3	120.3	105.0	105.1	130.6	130.6	120.9	112.8
Birmingham	124.3	124.4	153.4	154.0	105.7	105.7	123.6	124.3	101.1	100.2	117.8	117.8	113.0	112.9
Boston	124.5	124.4	144.8	144.6	103.6	103.6	124.7	125.1	120.9	120.9	122.5	122.5	112.0	112.0
Bridgeport	125.6	125.8	146.6	147.2	106.5	106.5	124.1	124.5	115.9	116.0	126.4	126.4	117.0	116.9
Buffalo	125.4	125.9	152.2	153.9	114.7	114.7	118.2	118.0	105.9	106.2	126.1	126.1	110.0	109.7
Chattanooga	123.7	123.9	158.8	159.8	103.1	103.1	118.2	118.2	90.7	90.9	121.5	121.5	109.7	109.4
Chicago	119.9	119.7	144.1	143.6	105.5	105.5	122.6	122.5	100.2	100.6	124.7	124.7	104.8	104.8
Cincinnati	123.6	122.5	148.0	145.0	100.9	100.9	128.1	128.1	103.5	103.6	124.1	124.1	110.8	110.4
Cleveland	124.1	124.2	145.4	146.0	109.7	109.7	126.9	126.9	102.4	102.5	118.2	118.2	116.2	115.9
Dallas	122.2	122.5	147.4	149.7	105.6	105.6	122.6	122.6	93.3	93.3	127.9	127.9	114.6	113.5
Dayton	123.5	124.2	149.4	153.2	105.1	105.1	121.7	121.5	103.7	103.9	127.5	127.5	111.9	109.9
Denver	123.3	123.9	149.6	152.5	105.6	105.6	121.2	121.6	97.5	97.6	122.5	122.4	113.1	112.1
Des Moines	123.7	125.0	150.2	155.4	105.3	105.3	126.3	126.1	110.1	110.1	123.8	123.8	113.9	113.5
Detroit	120.6	122.1	145.8	150.7	107.0	107.0	117.6	117.5	113.5	113.9	133.1	133.1	104.0	103.7
Duluth	123.6	123.7	147.5	148.1	100.1	100.1	125.0	124.5	105.3	105.4	129.7	129.7	113.6	113.5
Erie	131.9	131.7	160.3	159.8	109.9	109.9	134.1	133.7	109.7	109.7	129.8	129.8	120.8	120.7
Fall River	125.5	126.6	148.5	151.5	104.3	104.3	118.8	118.8	115.3	115.5	114.3	114.3	117.6	117.5
Front Royal, Va	126.6	127.3	166.3	170.1	103.6	103.6	127.8	127.9	103.9	103.9	132.3	127.1	113.4	113.2
Grand Rapids	127.9	129.0	155.6	159.3	106.5	106.5	122.3	122.5	108.8	109.0	132.7	132.7	119.5	119.3
Houston	120.2	119.8	143.4	142.2	105.7	105.7	124.2	124.2	90.2	90.2	114.7	114.7	113.0	112.7
Huntington, W. Va.	125.8	125.9	152.7	153.3	111.7	111.7	118.4	118.3	100.0	100.0	125.2	123.9	113.2	113.1
Indianapolis	125.3	125.0	151.1	151.3	107.9	107.9	120.3	120.0	108.2	106.2	124.7	124.7	116.2	115.7
Kansas City, Mo.	121.1	121.6	139.2	141.2	105.2	105.2	121.5	121.7	108.8	108.8	120.9	120.9	115.6	115.3
Lansing	129.9	128.7	172.7	168.9	98.0	98.0	123.5	123.8	101.6	101.6	130.0	129.6	120.9	120.5
Los Angeles	123.2	123.1	154.6	154.4	104.6	104.6	118.5	118.5	96.2	96.2	123.8	123.8	109.8	109.6
Louisville	124.5	124.5	150.4	150.4	103.9	103.9	119.4	119.6	110.3	110.4	127.7	127.7	109.8	109.7
Lynn	125.1	125.3	147.2	147.7	104.5	104.5	123.3	123.3	116.1	116.2	125.6	125.6	112.0	111.9
Macon	128.9	128.8	154.0	153.5	115.9	115.9	117.3	117.2	100.5	100.5	129.2	129.2	120.6	120.6
Manchester, N. H	125.2	125.2	152.7	152.8	102.9	102.9	119.2	119.2	109.6	109.8	124.5	123.8	106.1	106.0
Meadville, Pa	127.0	127.3	152.1	153.1	110.8	110.8	116.5	117.1	110.2	110.2	129.8	128.7	120.5	120.4
Memphis	126.7	127.2	162.4	164.9	109.4	109.4	128.0	127.8	102.0	102.2	128.4	127.5	109.2	108.9
Milwaukee	124.2	125.5	149.1	153.7	103.3	103.3	127.7	128.1	107.6	107.6	125.5	125.3	115.4	115.1
Minneapolis	123.7	124.5*r*	148.7	151.6	103.7	103.7	125.3	125.0	102.6	102.6*r*	122.1	122.2	116.2	116.0
Muskegon, Mich	130.5	130.8	168.8	171.6	115.2	115.2	122.6	122.7	112.5	112.5	118.8	118.8	114.0	112.5
Newark	122.8	121.9	150.8	148.8	101.4	101.4	120.0	119.8	104.6	104.8	129.3	129.3	106.0	105.3
New Haven	120.7	120.9	143.3	144.0	105.3	105.3	119.5	119.3	109.9	110.0	124.4	124.4	108.1	108.1
New Orleans	124.3	124.3	148.5	148.5	110.6	110.6	118.7	118.8	103.2	103.2	128.3	128.3	104.1	104.0
New York	123.0	121.5	151.0	146.9	100.8	100.8	114.2	113.8	110.8	111.1	127.7	127.7	107.0	106.9
Oakland	127.1	127.2*r*	155.2	155.7	131.5	131.5	124.3	124.4	78.0	78.0*r*	119.3	119.3	104.5	104.3
Omaha	123.7	123.8	152.0	153.0	100.6	100.6	120.2	120.3	105.1	104.8	131.0	130.7	115.2	115.0
Parkersburg, W. Va.	125.9	126.5	151.2	153.1	104.2	104.2	123.7	123.9	94.6	94.6	125.0	124.6	112.0	111.8
Philadelphia	125.3	127.5	149.8	156.2	102.9	102.9	122.4	122.3	106.5	106.7	121.1	121.1	112.6	112.5
Pittsburgh	124.9	125.5	149.5	151.4	105.7	105.7	124.5	124.2	110.3	110.3	117.2	117.2	113.4	113.2
Portland, Ore	125.7	126.1	147.5	149.1	110.0	110.0	127.4	127.3	124.9	124.9	119.0	119.0	113.6	113.5
Providence	123.5	123.0	148.0	146.8	103.3	103.3	118.1	117.8	113.9	114.0	125.3	125.3	113.3	113.2
Richmond	122.0	120.8	157.5	153.4	102.7	102.7	118.5	118.6	105.2	105.2	120.5	120.5	104.6	104.5
Roanoke, Va	126.3	126.2	156.3	156.0	119.2	119.2	113.4	113.5	104.1	104.1	121.9	121.9	111.6	111.6
Rochester	127.0	128.3	151.5	155.8	103.9	103.9	127.8	127.8	112.2	112.3	136.1	136.1	121.7	121.6
Rockford, Ill	132.2	131.5	152.9	151.0	138.0	138.0	120.5	120.1	111.9	112.0	131.3	131.3	115.8	115.5
Sacramento	124.3	123.7*r*	153.5	153.8	104.1	104.1	121.7	121.4	80.8	80.8*r*	134.7	134.7	114.2	112.1
St. Louis	124.7	125.5	151.7	154.5	106.0	106.0	122.4	122.3	110.0	110.0	118.0	118.0	110.1	109.9
St. Paul	121.8	122.2	145.4	147.0	100.9	100.9	119.4	119.4	103.9	104.0	125.6	125.6	115.5	115.4
San Francisco	125.5	126.3*r*	167.6	170.2	98.3	98.3	121.7	121.6	79.2	79.2*r*	119.6	119.6	105.4	105.2
Seattle	127.0	127.9	155.9	161.0	114.3	114.3	118.6	118.4	112.2	112.4	119.9	119.9	111.3	109.1
Spokane	125.9	125.8*r*	149.3	149.2	102.0	102.0	121.2	121.2	132.3	132.3*r*	132.3	132.3	111.7	111.6
Syracuse	128.6	127.3	157.3	154.3	116.2	116.2	125.8	125.3	109.0	109.2	127.4	127.4	115.2	113.7
Toledo	124.7	124.7	149.4	149.7	109.3	109.3	123.2	122.5	106.4	106.5	122.2	121.9	113.9	113.9
Wausau, Wis	125.5	126.5	157.0	160.3	102.7	102.7	125.0	125.0	104.6	103.7	123.6	123.6	104.8	104.6
Wilmington, Del	125.5	126.6	150.5	154.3	104.0	104.0	124.6	124.9	103.4	103.5	115.4	115.4	112.3	111.2
Youngstown	127.9	131.0	163.0	173.6	105.3	105.3	125.9	125.6	106.7	106.7	131.8	131.8	109.5	109.3

PERCENTAGE CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING IN 8 CITIES, PREWAR BUDGETS

	May 1943 to June 1943	June 1942 to June 1943	May 1943 to June 1943	June 1942 to June 1943	May 1943 to June 1943	June 1942 to June 1943	May 1943 to June 1943	June 1942 to June 1943	May 1943 to June 1943	June 1942 to June 1943	May 1943 to June 1943	June 1942 to June 1943	May 1943 to June 1943	June 1942 to June 1943
Anderson, Ind	−0.1	+7.9	−0.6	−19.8	0	0	+0.1	+2.7	0	+3.9	0	0	+0.3	+3.7
Evansville, Ind	+0.2	+7.5	+0.3	+19.6	0	−0.7	−0.2	+0.2	0	+2.6	+0.4	+0.7	+0.2	+3.2
Flint, Mich	−1.2	+8.3	−2.8	+19.9	0	0	−1.0	+0.1	−0.3	+6.3	0	+1.9	+0.2	+3.1
Green Bay, Wisc	+0.8	+7.0	+2.1	+16.4	0	−0.1	+0.3	+0.6	0	+5.2	0	−0.1	+0.3	+5.2
Joliet, Ill.[2]	−0.5	+7.1	−1.8	+17.8	0	−3.6	+0.3	+0.7	+0.1	+1.8	0	+0.9	+0.3	+5.2
Lewistown, Pa	+1.1	+7.1	+1.7	+15.1	0	0	+0.8	+2.5	0	+2.7	0	+0.3	+1.2	+2.8
Saginaw, Mich	−0.7	+7.0	−1.8	+17.7	0	0	+0.2	+1.0	−0.9	+4.5	0	+0.6	+0.2	+2.7
Trenton, N. J	−1.3	+5.6	−3.1	+11.3	0	+0.5	−0.4	−1.2	−0.2	+2.3	+0.2	+1.7	+0.1	+4.3

[1] 1923=100

[2] Includes Lockport and Rockdale

a Included in Sundries

Strikes and Turnover Rates

NO LARGE decreases were noticeable in strike activity during the month of June. The coal strike among anthracite and bituminous miners in all major eastern coal fields broke out twice again during the month. The first halt came on June 1, when the extended truce expired. On June 3, President Roosevelt ordered work resumed June 7. On June 4, the United Mine Workers of America called off the strike as of June 7.

At midnight on June 20, the fifth coal work stoppage since the war began was started, but on June 22 it was decided to extend the "truce" to October 31, 1943, and a formal statement to that effect was made on June 23. The decision to resume work was made with the understanding that the government would operate the mines with Harold L. Ickes as the government operator of the coal properties. The prevailing conditions and minimum wages were to be continued. This decision still has not been accepted by all of the miners, and the dispute is still very active.

As yet no action regarding the coal strike has resulted from the passage by Congress on June 25 of the Smith-Connally anti-strike bill over the President's veto. The coal strike was one of the primary reasons for the bill. It was to become effective immediately and remain in effect until six months after the conclusion of the war. This law gave the President authority to take immediate possession of plants, mines or other production facilities necessary to the war effort affected by a strike or other labor disturbance. It provided that they should be operated under prevailing conditions of employment, unless they are changed by the National War Labor Board. Persons who in any way encourage, cause or finance interruptions of production are subject to fine of $5,000, one year in prison, or both.

LABOR DISPUTES ORIGINATING IN JUNE, 1943[1]

Organization Affected	Location	Date Begun	Date Ended	Number of Workers Involved
Manufacturing, Building, and Mining				
American Locomotive Company	Dunkirk, N. Y.	6/ 4	6/ 4	*a*
Anthracite and Bituminous Coal Miners	[2, 3]	1	7*b*	530,000
Anthracite and Bituminous Coal Miners	[2]	20	23*c*	530,000
Best Foods, Inc	Bayonne, N. J.	25	..	325
Bethlehem Steel Company, Inc	Steelton, Pa.	10	..	55
Bethlehem Steel Company, Inc	Lackawanna, N. Y.	16	..	185
Buffalo Forge Company	Buffalo, N. Y.	26	26	500
Chrysler Corporation (Highland Park Plant)	Detroit, Mich.	28	29	3,800
Chrysler Corporation (Dodge Main Plant)[4]	Detroit, Mich.	15	..	100
Crocker-Wheeler Manufacturing Company	Ampere, N. J.	22	..	350
Crucible Steel Company of America	Harrison, N. J.	29	7/ 1*d*	1,000
Dodge Olcott Company	Bayonne, N. J.	28	2	115
Douglas Aircraft Corporation	Oklahoma City, Okla.	20	..	250
Ford Motor Company (Highland Park Plant)	Detroit, Mich.	7	6/10	57
Ford Motor Company (Four large plants)	Detroit, Mich.	19	21	2,700
Ford Motor Company (River Rouge Plant)	Detroit, Mich.	23	24	1,500
General Tire and Rubber Company	Akron, Ohio	9	..	35*e*
Jamestown Steel Partitions, Inc	Falconer, N. Y.	9	15	140
National Tool and Manufacturing Company	Kenilworth, N. J.	26	28	500
Packard Motor Car Company	Detroit, Mich.	3	5	25,000
John A. Roebling's Sons Company	Trenton, N. J.	29	30	1,500
Shell Oil Company, Inc	Houston, Texas	11	13	1,200
United States Cartridge Company[5]	St. Louis, Mo.	2	3	3,700
United States Rubber Company	Providence, R. I.	9	..	850
Wickwire Spencer Steel Company	Tonawanda, N. Y.	3	5	1,350
Alan Wood Steel Company	Ivy Rock, Pa.	23	..	250
Wright Aeronautical Corporation (Plant No. 3)	Fair Lawn, N. J.	23	24*f*	196
York Safe and Lock Company	York, Pa.	24	24	800–1,500
Miscellaneous				
Sam Adler, Incorporated[6]	Bronx, N. Y.	8	9	40
Bus drivers and trolley car operators	Johnstown, Pa.	13	15	275
East Penn Transportation Company	Pottsville, Pa.	3	..	60
Greyhound Corporation drivers and mechanics	Pittsburgh, Pa.	15	..	300
Public Service Electric and Gas Company	Eight counties, N. J.[7]	21	22	2,800
Staten Island Coach Company	Staten Island, N. Y.	14	15	*g*
Street laborers and garbage loaders	Chicago, Ill.	20	..	800
Transit line workers	Cleveland, Ohio	5	..	*h*
United States Maritime Commission[8]	Hoboken, N. J.	29	7/ 1	250

[1] Incomplete report based on available information published in the press.

[2] Miners belonging to United Mine Workers of America in every major coal field in the eastern part of the United States.

[3] On June 2, the AFL union members at Gillespie, Illinois, joined the general strike.

[4] Truck drivers.

[5] St. Louis ordnance plant.

[6] Milk truck drivers.

[7] Essex, Bergen, Hudson, Passaic, Somerset, Mercer, Middlesex, and Union counties.

[8] Dock workers on six piers.

a In the morning 200 workers in two departments left their jobs. Several hundred others joined them during the day.

b Statement issued on June 4. Returned to work on June 7.

c On June 22, agreement made to extend truce to October 31, 1943. Statement formally issued on June 23. On June 30, 130,000 workers had not returned to the mines. Many miners are still idle.

d 400 workers returned on June 30.

e Forced lay-off of several hundred other workers.

f 100 workers on first shift and ten on second shift discharged by telegraph.

g 105 of the 174 buses in service were laid up.

h 125 maintenance and repair workers walked out June 5 and operators on six street car and four bus lines stopped in sympathy on June 6.

The National War Labor Board acquired power to enforce attendance of both labor and management representatives at its hearings and to render decisions even though these representatives fail to appear. Board members may not participate in any decision in which they have any direct interest.

Notice of any dispute which threatens to interrupt war production must be given to the Secretary of Labor, the National War Labor Board, and the National Labor Relations Board. Thirty days later the National Labor Relations Board is required to take a secret strike ballot of the employees.

A section was also included in the anti-strike bill forbidding labor organizations, national banks and corporations organized by authority of federal law to make, without penalty, political contributions in any election involving National Government officials.

The President objected to the bill for many reasons, warning that the measure would stimulate labor unrest, give governmental sanction to strike agitation and foment slow-downs and strikes. He said: "In wartime we cannot sanction strikes with or without notice."

A new trend was noticeable in the type of strike called during June, many during the month having been occasioned by rationing restrictions. Several instances are reflected in the accompanying table, which lists strikes of milk drivers who refused to take out extra loads of milk when the number of deliveries for the week was cut down to conserve gasoline. Many transportation lines also suffered from work stoppages when operators objected to cuts in the total

STRIKES, TURNOVER RATES AND PRODUCTION

Date	All Occupations			Manufacturing						
	Strikes[1]			Production[2] (1935–1939 = 100)	Turnover Rate per 100 Employees[1]					
	Beginning in Period		Man Days Idle During Period (Thousand)		Separations[3]					Accessions[7]
	Number	Workers Involved (Thousand)			Total	Quits[4]	Miscellaneous[4]	Discharges[5]	Lay-offs[6]	
1929	921	289	5,352	110	75.23*a*	41.01*a*		9.04*a*	25.17*a*	67.61*a*
1930	637	183	3,317	90	59.65	18.64		5.04	35.97	37.02
1931	810	342	6,893	74	48.38	11.39		2.72	34.27	36.59
1932	841	324	10,502	57	51.98	8.84		1.96	41.68	39.82
1933	1,695	1,168	16,872	68	45.38	10.66		2.49	32.23	65.20
1934	1,856	1,467	19,592	74	49.17	10.67		2.24	36.26	56.91
1935	2,014	1,117	15,456	87	42.74	10.37		2.29	30.08	50.05
1936	2,172	789	13,902	104	40.35	13.02		2.63	24.70	52.16
1937	4,740	1,861	28,425	113	53.11	14.97		2.38	35.76	42.59
1938	2,772	688	9,148	87	49.22	7.46		1.29	40.47	46.16
1939	2,613	1,171	17,812	108	37.71	9.52		1.52	26.67	48.85
1940	2,508	577	6,701	124	40.27	10.93	1.61	1.84	25.89	52.72
1941	4,288	2,363	23,048	161	46.68	23.63	4.15	3.04	15.86	64.51
1942	2,968	840	4,183	190	77.66	45.09	15.04	4.66	12.87	91.62
1942 April	277	56	367	181	6.12	3.59	.87	.35	1.31	7.12
May	285	69	322	183	6.54	3.77	.96	.38	1.43	7.29
June	345	110	586	185	6.46	3.85	1.02	.38	1.21	8.25
July	388	100	417	189	6.73	4.02	1.23	.43	1.05	8.28
August	330	92	449	196	7.06	4.31	1.46	.42	.87	7.90
September *r*	274	88	387	203	8.10	5.19	1.79	.44	.68	9.15
October *r*	207	62	244	205	7.91	4.65	2.03	.45	.78	8.69
November	144	52	128	206	7.09	4.21	1.80	.43	.65	8.14
December	147	59	193	207	6.37	3.71	1.50	.46	.70	6.92
1943 January[8]	195	90	450	208	7.11	4.45	1.40	.52	.74	8.28
February	210	42	170	211	7.04	4.65	1.35	.50	.54	7.87
March	260	72	230	212	7.69	5.36	1.24	.57	.52	8.32
April *r*	395	200	675	214	7.54	5.41	.96	.53	.64	7.43
May *p*	395	620	1,275	216	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*	*n.a.*

NOTE—For back figures, see *The Conference Board Management Record*, June, 1942, p. 194.

[1] United States Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[2] Federal Reserve annual production data are averages of monthly figures.

[3] A separation is a termination of employment of any of the following kinds: quit, lay-off, discharge, or miscellaneous. Transfers from one plant to another of the same company are not considered as accessions or separations.

[4] A quit is a termination of employment, generally initiated by the worker because of his desire to leave, but sometimes due to his physical incapacity. Beginning with January, 1940, separate rates were computed for miscellaneous separations; *i. e.*, separations due to death, permanent disability, retirements on pensions, and similar reasons. Beginning with September, 1940, workers leaving to enter the Army or Navy were included in miscellaneous separations.

[5] A discharge is a termination of employment at the will of the employer, with prejudice to the worker because of some fault on the part of the worker.

[6] A lay-off is a termination of employment at the will of the employer, without prejudice to the worker and of a temporary, indeterminate, or permanent nature. However, a short, definite lay-off with the name of the worker remaining on the payroll is not counted as a separation.

[7] An accession is the hiring of a new employee or the rehiring of an old employee. Transfers from one plant to another of the same company are not considered as accessions or separations.

[8] Data on turnover rates since January, 1943, are not strictly comparable with previously released data. The rates now refer to all employees rather than wage earners only.

*a*June to December. *p*Preliminary. *n.a.*Not available. *r*Revised mileage of their lines which were made to save necessary materials, and which resulted in shorter hours or in reduced labor force and longer hours. Many further instances of this sort were reported in the newspapers but were excluded from this month's table because details were lacking.

STRIKES DURING MAY

Considerable strike activity was being carried on in May, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The number of workers involved in strikes was 620,000, an increase of 200% over April and 2,000% over December, 1941. This is probably the highest figure on record since the series began in 1881, except possibly for the period 1914-1922. No monthly figures are readily available for the period previous to 1926, but yearly totals indicate that monthly figures could not have exceeded 620,000 workers on strike except during the period mentioned. The number of workers idle during May was equal to three-quarters of the total number of workers idle for the entire year of 1942.

The number of man days idle in May was 1,275,000, almost twice as many as in April and three times as many as in the month of Pearl Harbor. Man days idle were the most since November, 1941, when they numbered 1,397,000.

Strikes beginning in May totaled 395—the same number as were begun in April. This total, however, was the highest since October, 1941, when 432 strikes were started. The number of strikes beginning each month has been increasing steadily since November, 1942.

TURNOVER RATES

Separations showed a slight decrease in April, having dropped from 7.69 to 7.54 for each 100 employees. The rise in the quit and lay-off rates was more than offset by the large decrease in the miscellaneous sepation rate and the small decrease in the discharge rate. Total separations during April were, however, 23% higher than April a year ago.

The accession rate during the month of April was 7.43 for every 100 employees. This is the lowest rate since the December, 1942, rate of 6.92. Total accessions were lower than total separations by .12 for every 100 employees. Although this is a small net decrease in the accession rate, it marks the first month that a decrease has occurred since May, 1940.

MARY A. WERTZ
Division of Labor Statistics

Wage-increase Announcements[1], June 1 to June 30

Source: Daily Press and Various Periodicals

Company	Location	Amount of Increase	Number Affected	Remarks
Bigelow-Sanford Carpet Company	Amsterdam, N. Y. and Thompsonville, Conn.	3½¢/hr.	5,400	Retroactive to October 1, 1942
Bower Roller Bearing Company	Detroit, Mich.	3¢/hr.	1,600	Retroactive to November 13, 1942
Circle Wire & Cable Company	Maspeth, N. Y.	3¢/hr.	200	To employees on night shift. Retroactive to June 1, 1942
Curb Exchange	New York City	$2 and $3/wk.	187	To quotation girls, pages and reporters. Retroactive to January 16, 1943
Dearborn Coach Company	Detroit, Mich.	8¢–25¢/hr.	205	
Pennsylvania Rubber Company	Jeannette, Pa.	4¢–10¢/hr.	1,500	Retroactive to March 1, 1943
The Philadelphia Record Philadelphia Inquirer Philadelphia Daily News	Philadelphia, Pa.	$2/wk.	361	To typographical employees
A. Schulte, Inc	Eastern and middle western states	10%	1,000	To cigar store employees
Thatcher Manufacturing Company	Long Island City, N. Y.	3¢/hr.	169	To correct intra-plant inequities
Union News Company	New York City	$2/wk.	211	To employees at 170 newsstands
		7¢–8¢/hr.	145	To assistants
United Cigar–Whelan Stores	New York City	10%	700	Retroactive to May 11, 1943
37 Canning Companies	Michigan	15¢/hr.	14,000	
Dry Cleaning Industry	New York City	6.7¢/hr. (avg.)	2,800	Retroactive to April 5, 1943
Milk Industry	New York and New Jersey	$4.50/wk.	4,000	To inside workers
Jewelry Industry	New York City	4¢/hr. (avg.)	1,600	
56 Restaurants	Detroit, Mich.	$3/wk.	1,657	Retroactive to April 25, 1943

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[1] Includes salary-increase announcements

Employment and Unemployment

EMPLOYMENT in May mounted to an all-time peak of 62.4 million. Nearly 1.2 million additional persons found employment on the farm front. Further additions to the armed forces offset losses in industrial employment and brought the net gain during the month to slightly less than 1.4 million. Fully 7 million more were at work or in uniform than in May, 1942. Expansion in the armed forces accounts for at least four-fifths of this increase. The May level of employment exceeded by more than 6.5 million the total number of persons normally comprising the nation's labor force in peacetime.

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT, MAY, 1943[1]

In Thousands

Distribution of Labor Force	1941	1942	1943		
	May	May	March	April	May[1]
Unemployment	2,928	....	....	....	....
Excess of employment over economic labor force	....	137	4,004	5,358	6,677
Total employment (including armed forces)	51,801	55,304	59,561	60,977	62,360
Agriculture	11,184	11,356	9,019	9,900	11,076
Forestry and fishing	222	218	181	187	192
Total industry	19,328	20,988	22,094	22,049	21,951
Extraction of minerals	758	790	726	715	707
Manufacturing	12,930	14,133	16,047	16,048	16,025
Construction	2,564	2,750	1,992	1,910	1,821
Transportation	2,074	2,278	2,316	2,361	2,383
Public utilities	1,001	1,038	1,013	1,016	1,015
Trade, distribution and finance	7,749	7,628	7,408	7,506	7,411
Service industries (including armed forces)	12,217	13,921	19,487	19,948	20,338
Miscellaneous industries and services	1,101	1,192	1,373	1,387	1,392
Emergency employment[2] WPA, CCC and NYA (out-of-school)[3]	*2,114*	*1,031*	*221*	*163*	*n.a.*

[1]Subject to revision
[2]Not included in employment total
[3]Since July 1, 1942, NYA projects are officially designated as war training programs rather than work-relief projects.
*n.a.*Not available.

While total employment has increased steadily since the start of the year, the number of persons at work in the nation's basic private industries (mining, manufacturing, construction, transportation and public utilities) has turned downward in recent months. In May, industrial employment in the basic industries dropped by nearly 100,000, or about twice the loss of the preceding month. Employment in manufacturing suffered its first downturn since the outbreak of the war. The number on construction projects continued to contract sharply and was reduced to 1.8 million, or fully a third lower than a year ago. Only in transportation was the level of employment in the basic-industry group above the preceding month's total. The number on payrolls in the trade and distribution industries also fell off nearly 100,000.

Official estimates suggest that civilian nonfarm employment will total only 41.9 million by the end of this year, or nearly a million less than in May. In all, about 5.5 million workers (net) will have been lost since Pearl Harbor by "nonessential" industries to munitions[1] and other essential industries or to the Armed Forces—nearly 60% in the present year. The employment pattern as of December, 1943, is estimated as follows:

	Dec. 1943	*Dec. 1942*
	Millions	
Munitions industries	10.5	8.7
Essential nonagricultural industries	8.0	7.7
Agriculture	8.9	8.9
(At seasonal peak)	*(12.0)*	*(12.0)*
Other industries	23.4	26.6
Armed forces	10.7	6.4
Total employment	61.5	58.3

MAY TRENDS

Farm employment advanced by nearly 1.2 million as more women and children contributed their efforts directly to farm production. Despite this gain, total farm employment of 11.1 million was almost 300,000 less than a year ago. This decrease was most pronounced in hired workers, who numbered only 2,471,000, or about 6.5% below the corresponding 1942 total. As of mid-year, children under fourteen comprised 13% of all farm workers as against only 4% in April, 1942. The Department of Agriculture in presenting this comparison warns that part of this resort to child labor is a normal seasonal development but that the major portion arises directly from the extreme shortage of adult farm labor. Female employment has also expanded sharply, rising from 14% to 27% of total farm employment during the same 14-month period.

To meet heavy production requirements, farm operators have also expanded their average work day so that, as of mid-year, it had reached 12.8 hours. Some relief has been obtained by the importation of Mexican labor, particularly in the Far West. Only 39,000 farm workers, however, have entered the country thus far this season, about two-thirds coming from Mexico.

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[1]Munitions industries include employment in: ordnance and accessories; transportation equipment; automotive; iron and steel; nonferrous metals; electrical machinery; other machinery; rubber products; chemicals; explosives; ammunition; professional and scientific instruments; photographic equipment; optical goods; fire extinguishers and petroleum refining. For the composition of essential nonagricultural industries and comparable estimates for December, 1940–December, 1941, see "Full Utilization of Manpower," Hearings of Committee on Military Affairs, House of Representatives, Washington, 1943, p. 998.

Employment gains in the heavy munitions industries were insufficient to offset declines in nondurable manufacturing. The net result was a loss of 23,000 persons, the first decrease of any war month. Even within the heavy durable group losses developed, particularly in iron and steel. Factory employment on nondurable products was most sharply curtailed in the textile and apparel fields, with the losses approaching 40,000. Contraction also continued in leather, tobacco and printing.

Civilian employment by federal, state and local units was further increased by 27,000. Approximately 6 million civilians were on federal, state and local payrolls in May, 1943, as compared with 5.0 million a year ago, 4.6 million in December, 1941, and 4.0 million in May, 1939.

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Division of Industrial Economics

Personnel Practices

(*Continued from page* 313)

Cloak Industry Pension Plan

An industry-wide agreement between the Cloakmakers Union, an affiliate of the International Ladies Garment Workers, and the employers' association provides for a pension of $600 per year for workers who have reached the age of sixty-five or over and want to retire. The manufacturers will contribute 3% of the payroll to a fund which will be administered by a commission to consist of an equal number of representatives of employers and employees, with three additional members representing the public.

Employers' contributions to the fund will begin on January 1, 1944. The fund will begin functioning as soon as a specified reserve fund is accumulated, probably within three years.

War Bond Trophy

A silver trophy is being awarded on a monthly basis to the division of the Consolidated Vultee Aircraft Corporation which scores the highest payroll deduction percentage in buying War Bonds. The trophy, a 36-inch figure representing the Goddess of Achievement, was selected by the joint company-union bond committee. In addition, the committee voted an "eight ball" trophy to be displayed by the division with the lowest monthly percentage of deductions.

Entertaining Men in Service

The latchstring is out for service men who return to the Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company for a visit. As a convenience to inducted employees, the company has fitted up a service men's lounge, located near the men's community rooms. It is equipped with upholstered furniture, writing desks, card table, radio, magazine racks and a variety of reading matter. Here service men on furlough can meet fellow workers. Officers at all entrances have been instructed to inform them that the lounge is at their disposal. Also, representatives of the company have been appointed to make personal contacts for the service men and to arrange meetings with their friends in the lounge.

An effort is being made to obtain current addresses of all former Goodyear men in service, the file to be kept in the lounge. Through this system, visiting service men may learn the location of former associates who are also in the Armed Forces.

Women employees of Lockheed Vega Aircraft Corporation, who have members of their families serving in the armed forces, have been organized into the Vega Blue Star organization. One of the purposes of this group is to entertain service men each week. Entertainment consists of games, dancing, community singing, conga instruction and refreshments.

In addition to the weekly hospitality programs, the activities of the group include the preparation of USO scrapbooks and the supplying of Christmas gifts to service men. These women also assist in drives to reduce absenteeism and to obtain blood donors and in other morale-building activities.

Overcoming the Housing Shortage

The housing shortage has become acute in many sections of the country. The California and Hawaiian Sugar Corporation at Crockett, California, has solved this problem in an ingenious manner. It has assembled auto-camp cottages from distant points and has located them in various parts of the community. In the face of necessary war restrictions on new home construction, these cottages are providing desirable living accommodations which otherwise could not be obtained.

Chronology of Events affecting Labor Relations, June 1 to June 30

June

1 *Coal Truce Expires—Strike Begins*—Second nation-wide coal strike starts as truce ends with no contract signed between coal operators and UMW.

2 *Steel Union Gets Voice in Hiring and Firing*—Under new order effective August 1 placing the steel industry on a 48-hour work week WMC also confers on steel industry's labor unions the right to be consulted on hiring and discharge actions.

3 *New "American Beveridge Plan" Presented to Congress*—Three Congressmen propose plan embodying philosophy of cradle-to-grave security. Plan provides for financing by workers and employers during first ten or fifteen years. Unemployment allowances would be increased, and existing old-age benefit allowances would be extended to cover farm workers, domestic servants, professional and small business men, and employees of non-profit institutions.

4 *Smith-Connally Bill Passed by House*—Bill passed by a vote of 231 to 141 provides penalties for persons inducing other persons to participate in lockouts, strikes or slowdowns in government-operated plants. Provides for government supervision of strike votes and a thirty-day cooling-off period before strike vote. Also prohibits labor unions from contributing financially to political parties and requires them to file with NLRB data on their financial activities.

Coal Strikers Ordered Back to Work—Effective June 7, policy committee of UMW orders striking miners back to work while negotiations are resumed. The President talks about induction into the armed forces of workers who strike.

7 *Hearings Start on Railroad Wage Demands*—Five railway unions demand wage increase for 400,000 railway employees. Union attorney emphasizes that a strike is not threatened.

8 *AFL President Urges Postwar Free Enterprise*—William Green recommends cooperation in a world organization for global peace and asks for elimination of postwar government restrictive controls over industry.

9 *Committees Agree on Anti-strike Bill*—Conferees of the Senate and House reach agreement on a compromise anti-strike bill. Original stipulation requiring unions to file financial data with NLRB is stricken from bill.

10 *Striking Miners Fined*—Secretary Ickes levies fines of $1 a day for five days against miners for second strike.

11 *House Passes Compromise Anti-strike Bill*—By vote of 219 to 129 the House passes final draft of the Smith-Connally bill.

Ickes Softens Previous Announcement of Miners' Fines—Way is cleared to cancel miners' fines by tossing responsibility for assessment and collection into the laps of committees composed of persons in charge of operating the mines and appropriate union members.

12 *Senate Passes Anti-strike Bill*—Quickly following passage by the House, the Senate approves compromise strike bill by vote of 55 to 22. Bill is sent to President for signature.

Labor Asks Place at Peace Table—CIO and AFL leaders at American Labor Conference demand representation in all deliberations concerning postwar reconstruction and basic international problems.

14 *Labor Asks Veto of Anti-strike Bill*—Labor leaders concentrate appeals to President to veto Smith-Connally bill on ground it will lower workers' morale and impair their efficiency.

15 *Two Labor Men Get High WPB Posts*—Clinton S. Golden (CIO) and Joseph B. Keenan (AFL) are appointed vice chairmen of WPB, reporting directly to Executive Vice Chairman Charles E. Wilson.

17 *WLB Denies Coal Wage Increases*—Coal strike starts to develop after WLB refuses (by an 8 to 4 vote) pay increases in "portal-to-portal" issue. Negotiations between UMW and operators to continue.

21 *Again No Contract, Again No Coal*—The fifteen-day truce expires with no contract signed, and the third nation-wide bituminous strike becomes almost totally effective.

22 *Race Riot in Detroit*—Soldiers aid police in quelling second day of widespread white-negro race riot in which 23 persons are killed and 700 injured.

Coal Strike Called Off—Two-day strike is called off by UMW until October 31 with stipulation that government continue to operate mines in the interim.

23 *Rail Pay Increase Denied*—Economic Stabilization Director vetoes general 8¢ an hour wage increase affecting 1,100,000 non-operating railway employees.

President to Ask Draft Law Changes—Miners object as President announces intention to ask Congress to raise age limit for noncombat military service in order to draft strikers in government-operated plants.

25 *Anti-strike Bill Veto Overridden*—President vetoes Smith-Connally bill as half the miners are still idle. Veto is immediately overridden in the Senate by vote of 56 to 25, and in the House by 244 to 108.

26 *Senate Bars Food Subsidies*—By vote of 46 to 29 the Senate votes to stop OPA program to hold or roll back food prices with subsidies.

No-strike Pledge Renewed—In letters to President, William Green and Philip Murray renew no-strike pledge, and also voice labor's objections to the anti-strike bill.

29 *WLB Supports Food Subsidy Program*—William H. Davis asserts wage stabilization policy of WLB requires prompt development of OPA's food subsidy program.

30 *Child Care Bill Passed*—Senate passes the War Area Child Care Bill authorizing the appropriation of $20,000,000 a year for the next two years to provide care for the children of working mothers in war areas.